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OVER that grave in the great Abbey which the historian so warmly coveted and so nobly won, it would be the desire of every man of sense and sensibility that there should now be peace. But this will hardly be. The writer is at rest. The applause of his readers, the censure of his critics, can delight or exercise that gladiatorial brain no more. The strong and passionate heart which seemed to glow and sparkle in the fire of controversy, has done with all its loves and hates. But the written word remains: a word emphasized with power and scorn; a word announced with no misgiving and with no reserve; yet assailing characters the most revered, opinions the most cherished, institutions the most respectable. Around this word we cannot hope for truce. The war of evidence, of sarcasm, of vituperation, which already rages, will, we fear, burn out afresh and with greater violence. It is not, as in Lord Macaulay's earlier time, a war in which the reprisals were personal and the conquests easy. Against John Wilson Croker, Macaulay could defend himself. He had no great need to dread the wrath of Robert Montgomery. But no man can hope to outrage a nation and get off scot-free. Personal ire exhausts itself very soon: a squib, an insult, or a literary victory may disarm resentment and allay rancour. But the passion of a party like that of the High Church,—of a community like that of the Quakers,—and of a nationality like that of Scotland, suffers no exhaustion and no fatigue. A succession of combatants will replace the retiring gladiator: Croker is followed by the Bishop of Exeter, Foster by Jannay and Paget, Napier by Robert Chambers.

We cannot hope to extinguish these controversies, seeing how much in the present volume is adapted to excite and inflame them. Those Quakers who have heretofore been scandalized by the picturesque caricatures of Penn and Fox, will, in the lesser degree, reject the story, as here told, of the fair Quaker who is supposed to have been in love with Spencer Cowper. The Scotch will be moved, and some of them maddened, by the elaborate representation of the Darien disaster. Admirers of John, Duke of Marlborough, will be offended by the continued maltreatment of that great officer. But we shall not ourselves to-day take part in these inevitable debates. We leave Mr. Bowden to defend the Stout family, and Mr. Chambers, or any other good Scot, to explain the impugned sanity and honesty of his countrymen who went out with William Paterson to found a new Tyre, or Venice, in the Isthmus of Darien. Marlborough is sufficiently taken care of. Of Montrose, of Dartmouth, of William Penn, enough has been said; but until many of the historical discussions which are still open shall have been closed, no final opinion on the value of Lord Macaulay's 'History of England' can be pronounced. Popular judgments on books are liable to much revision. About century ago, a work was announced in the newspapers under the title of a 'History of England from the Accession of James the First to the Elevation of the House of Hanover,' by Catherine Macaulay. The expectation was great, for Catherine Macaulay was a violent partisan, and the success enormous, for her book was clever,

piquant, disputatious and calumnious. Every body read it: the Whigs and Republicans to admire, the Tories to abuse and denounce. It was, indeed, a magnificent party pamphlet in five volumes. For several years the historian was a toast at Whig banquets, and the dismay of Tory and Jacobite politicians, male and female. The copyright of her History brought her several thousand pounds, so that compared with her revenues the literary gains of Goldsmith, or Savage, were below contempt. Johnson envied her many editions, and even Johnson's masculine understanding was disturbed by her success. The book was left a fragment. While Catherine Macaulay was drawing the attention of the reading world to her exaggerated views of the character of Charles, of Strafford, and of Cromwell,—doing good service, let us say, by her occasional insight into character and motives, and even by the violence and vituperation which compelled a closer searching into the sources of historic fable,—Edmund Gibbon was preparing his 'History of the Decline and Fall of Rome.' Five years after Catherine Macaulay published her fifth volume, Gibbon brought out his first. Its success, though great, fell below that of his female rival in popularity; and but for the controversial character of his fifteenth and sixteenth chapters, the public interest in his pages would have been considerably less than it was. Yet no one reads Catherine Macaulay now, and everybody reads Gibbon.

It was in the nature of Lord Macaulay's genius to consider the past as a politician rather than as a philosopher. He cared little for the past as the past, for fact as fact; he cared only for the lessons to be derived from history,—for the immediate uses to be made of truth. With all his apparent fervour, the seventeenth century was to him attractive and important only in so far as it helped him to understand the nineteenth. "History" was in his eyes a marble muse "teaching by example," enunciating wise saws and ancient instances, drawing the moral out of this and that act, and under great energy of expression, keeping her temper sedate and cold. Hence, there is discernible in each of his three separate publications of the 'History' manifest references to the controversies raised by passing events. His account of the Revolution closed with a lecture to the English Chartists and the Paris Socialists of 1848. His third and fourth volumes abound in allusions to events in progress at the time he wrote them. He never fails to improve the occasion,—and in his new volume this vice is more frequent and conspicuous than in the former volumes. It opens with an elaborate view of the best defence of nations—*à propos* to an imaginary invasion by the French—in which the excellence of professional soldiers, as compared against occasional soldiers, is insisted on with all the energy implied in Lord Lansdowne's well-remembered saying. He could not help instituting these comparisons and drawing these utilitarian conclusions. Of the morals which lie in every true story, he seems to have had considerable doubts. He would not rely, as the poet or the dramatist relies, on truth and on the detective and exploring sensibilities of mankind. If he saw a sermon in a stone, he would break the stone to get it out. If he spied a lesson in a tale, he stopped the tale to point the moral. Of sympathy with life merely as life, that sympathy possessed to perfection by women, by young children, by poets, by dramatists, he had none at all. Books were to him life. If he studied

his species, it was that he might better comprehend his books. Men and women were to him organizations, orders, varieties of a system, things endowed with qualities, faculties, aptitudes, capacities, passions. Where he felt any keen sympathy it was with the intellect, not with the humanity. If he had a boundless admiration for William, or an inexpressible scorn of Marlborough, his feeling was excited by the politician, not by the man.

As the question of defence is one still in agitation, and, indeed, likely, despite our Warriors and Black Princes, our Militias and Volunteers, to be in agitation, so long as the guns of Dover and Calais frown at each other across the Channel, and the principles of the Saxon are unlike the principles of the Gaul, our readers will like to see what Lord Macaulay thought of recommending to his countrymen. The discussion which invites him to display his views on this topic, arose on the question of what should be done, after the Peace of 1697, with that gallant army which William commanded, and which had so powerfully contributed to bring the Peace about. England had never submitted to maintain a standing army. The whole nation was then more or less trained to the use of arms; every gentleman wore his rapier and practised with his pistols. Shooting and sword-exercise were the delights of every class of the population. For six-hundred years there had been no successful invasion of this country; and the levies, though suddenly raised and only half-disciplined, had never met the French in a fair field without breaking and scattering them. The confidence and security of the people were consequently supreme. As they could not imagine a use for a permanent army other than that of supporting a despotic government in power, the whole nation was for disbanding the English regiments and for sending the Dutch guards home again. In the House of Commons, and in numerous pamphlets, the question was debated on general principles. Lord Macaulay puts the case in this way:

"No man of sense has, in our days, or in the days of our fathers, seriously maintained that our island could be safe without an army. And, even if our island were perfectly secure from attack, an army would still be indispensably necessary to us. The growth of the empire has left us no choice. The regions which we have colonized or conquered since the accession of the House of Hanover contain a population exceeding twenty-fold that which the House of Stuart governed. There are now more English soldiers on the other side of the tropic of Cancer in time of peace than Cromwell had under his command in time of war. All the troops of Charles II. would not have been sufficient to garrison the posts which we now occupy in the Mediterranean Sea alone. The regiments which defend the remote dependencies of the Crown cannot be duly recruited and relieved, unless a force far larger than that which James collected in the camp at Hounslow for the purpose of overawing his capital be constantly kept up within the kingdom. The old national antipathy to permanent military establishments, an antipathy which was once reasonable and salutary, but which lasted some time after it had become unreasonable and noxious, has gradually yielded to the irresistible force of circumstances. We have made the discovery, that an army may be so constituted as to be in the highest degree efficient against an enemy, and yet obsequious to the civil magistrate. We have long ceased to apprehend danger to law and to freedom from the license of troops, and from the ambition of victorious generals. An alarmist who should now talk such language as was common five generations ago, who should call for the entire disbanding of the land force of the realm, and who should gravely depict that the warriors of Inkerman and Delhi would depose the Queen, dissolve the Parliament, and plunder

the Bank, would be regarded as fit only for a cell in St. Luke's."

The case was, however, very different in the seventeenth century. The people knew nothing of a domestic army, but the evil of it—the licence of Goring's crew or of James's Hounslow regiments. As Lord Macaulay says:—

"One class of politicians was never weary of repeating that an Apostolic Church, a loyal gentry, an ancient nobility, a sainted King, had been foully outraged by the Joyces and the Prides: another class recounted the atrocities committed by the Lambs of Kirke, and by the Beelzebubs and Lucifers of Dundee; and both classes, agreeing in scarcely anything else, were disposed to agree in aversion to the red-coats."

Trenchard and Somers took the opposite sides in a violent paper war which preceded the debates in Parliament. Lord Macaulay undertakes to demonstrate that William's desire to retain his great army was, though an unprecedented, a reasonable and patriotic wish. He first states, fairly, the argument of Trenchard; but with an eloquence and conciseness to which Trenchard made no claim:—

"Invasion was the bugbear with which the Court tried to frighten the nation. But we were not children to be scared by nursery tales. We were at peace; and, even in time of war, an enemy who should attempt to invade us would probably be intercepted by our fleet, and would assuredly, if he reached our shores, be repelled by our militia. Some people, indeed, talked as if a militia could achieve nothing great. But that base doctrine was refuted by all ancient and all modern history. What was the Lacedæmonian phalanx in the best days of Lacedæmon? What was the Roman legion in the best days of Rome? What were the armies which conquered at Cressy, at Poitiers, at Agincourt, at Halidon, or at Flodden? What was that mighty array which Elizabeth reviewed at Tilbury? In the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, Englishmen who did not live by the trade of war had made war with success and glory. Were the English of the seventeenth century so degenerate that they could not be trusted to play the men for their own homesteads and parish churches?"

To all this, and to much more of the same class, Lord Macaulay replies:—

"It must be evident to every intelligent and dispassionate man that these declaimers contradicted themselves. If an army composed of regular troops really was far more efficient than an army composed of husbandmen, taken from the plough, and burghers, taken from the counter, how could the country be safe with no defenders but husbandmen and burghers, when a great prince, who was our nearest neighbour, who had a few months before been our enemy, and who might, in a few months, be our enemy again, kept up not less than a hundred and fifty thousand regular troops? If, on the other hand, the spirit of the English people was such that they would, with little or no training, encounter and defeat the most formidable array of veterans from the Continent, was it not absurd to apprehend that such a people could be reduced to slavery by a few regiments of their own countrymen? But our ancestors were generally so much blinded by prejudice that this inconsistency passed unnoticed. They were secure where they ought to have been wary, and timorous where they might well have been secure. They were not shocked by hearing the same man maintain, in the same breath, that if twenty thousand professional soldiers were kept up, the liberty and property of millions of Englishmen would be at the mercy of the Crown, and yet that those millions of Englishmen, fighting for liberty and property, would speedily annihilate an invading army composed of fifty or sixty thousand of the conquerors of Stein-kirk and Landen. Whoever denied the former proposition was called a tool of the Court. Whoever denied the latter was accused of insulting and slandering the nation."

It is impossible not to see that these argu-

ments are addressed to Mr. Bright and the Peace party of our own day. We do not imagine that the sophism on which they proceed requires any particular refutation. It is perfectly certain that a pretorian guard which was absolutely useless for defence, might be a formidable instrument of domestic repression. James's Hounslow regiments were not at all terrible to the enemy, but they were exceedingly terrible to their fellow-subjects. In the case of a foreign invasion, the people would act together, with the law on their side and the government at their back. But for resistance to a despotic King, they would have the law, in appearance at least, against them, and they would have to face the compact organization of the government before they were themselves armed and trained. The positions are so different, that one is amazed to find a politician arguing from one to the other. Take the instance of our own Volunteers. With the help of government and by the sanction of law, a magnificent army has been organized, which in five or six weeks of campaigning would become fit to face any troops in the world; but a word from the government, and the staves of a dozen constables, might have prevented that magnificent army from ever being formed.

The views of Somers are thus set forth:—

"The evil of having regular soldiers, and the evil of not having them, Somers set forth and compared in a little treatise, which was once widely renowned as the 'Balancing Letter,' and which was admitted, even by the malecontents, to be an able and plausible composition. He well knew that mere names exercise a mighty influence on the public mind; that the most perfect tribunal which a legislator could construct would be unpopular if it were called the Star Chamber; that the most judicious tax which a financier could devise would excite murmurs if it were called Ship-money; and that the words Standing Army then had to English ears a sound as unpleasing as either Ship-money or Star Chamber. He declared therefore that he abhorred the thought of standing army. What he recommended was, not a standing, but a temporary army, an army of which Parliament would annually fix the number, an army for which Parliament would annually frame a military code, an army which would cease to exist as soon as either the Lords or Commons should think that its services were not needed. From such an army surely the danger to public liberty could not by wise men be thought serious. On the other hand, the danger to which the kingdom would be exposed if all the troops were disbanded was such as might well disturb the firmest mind. Suppose a war with the greatest power in Christendom to break out suddenly, and to find us without one battalion of regular infantry, without one squadron of regular cavalry; what disasters might we not reasonably apprehend? It was idle to say that a descent could not take place without ample notice, and that we should have time to raise and discipline a great force. An absolute prince, whose orders, given in profound secrecy, were promptly obeyed at once by his captains on the Rhine and on the Scheld, and by his admirals in the Bay of Biscay and in the Mediterranean, might be ready to strike a blow long before we were prepared to parry it. We might be appalled by learning that ships from widely remote parts, and troops from widely remote garrisons, had assembled at a single point within sight of our coast. To trust to our fleet was to trust to the winds and the waves. The breeze which was favourable to the invader might prevent our men-of-war from standing out to sea. Only nine years ago this had actually happened. The Protestant wind, before which the Dutch armament had run full sail down the Channel, had driven King James's navy back into the Thames. It must then be acknowledged to be not improbable that the enemy might land. And, if he landed, what would he be? An open country; a rich country; provisions

everywhere; not a river but which could be forded; no natural fastnesses such as protect the fertile plains of Italy; no artificial fastnesses such as, at every step, impeded the progress of a conqueror in the Netherlands. Everything must then be staked on the steadiness of the militia; and it was pernicious flattery to represent the militia as equal to a conflict in the field with veterans whose whole life had been a preparation for the day of battle. The instances which it was the fashion to cite of the great achievements of soldiers taken from the threshing-floor and the shop-board were fit only for a schoolboy's theme. Somers, who had studied ancient literature like a man,—a rare thing in his time,—said that those instances refuted the doctrine which they were meant to prove. He disposed of much idle declamation about the Lacedæmonians by saying, most concisely, correctly and happily, that the Lacedæmonian commonwealth really was a standing army which threatened all the rest of Greece. In fact, the Spartan had no calling except war. Of arts, sciences and letters he was ignorant. The labour of the spade and of the loom, and the petty gains of trade, he contemptuously abandoned to men of a lower caste. His whole existence from childhood to old age was one long military training. Meanwhile, the Athenian, the Corinthian, the Argive, the Theban, gave his chief attention to his oliveyard or his vineyard, his warehouse or his workshop, and took up his shield and spear only for short terms and at long intervals. The difference, therefore, between a Lacedæmonian phalanx and any other phalanx was long as great as the difference between a regiment of the French household troops and a regiment of the London trainbands. Lacedæmon consequently continued to be dominant in Greece till other states began to employ regular troops. Then her supremacy was at an end. She was great while she was a standing army among militias. She fell when she had to contend with other standing armies. The lesson which is really to be learned from her ascendancy and from her decline is this, that the occasional soldier is no match for the professional soldier."

We cannot but think that if Lord Macaulay had lived to see that our issue out of those painful discussions of 1857 and 1858, caused by the invasion panic, was a return to the citizen-soldiership of our ancestors, he would have greatly modified his views on this subject as here expressed. As the resource of Whig politicians in those years was a large augmentation of the regular army, the historian pressed his historical readings into their service, just as he would have thought it his duty to do in the House of Commons. Thus, he lends the authority of his name to that version of the history of Sparta, which Somers, in party pamphlet, made to tell on his side of the argument:—

"The first great humiliation which befell the Lacedæmonians was the affair of Sphacteria. It is remarkable that on this occasion they were vanquished by men who made a trade of war. The force which Cleon carried out with him from Athens to the Bay of Pylos, and to which the event of the conflict is to be chiefly ascribed, consisted entirely of mercenaries,—archers from Scythia and light infantry from Thrace. The victory gained by the Lacedæmonians over a great confederate army at Tegea retrieved that military reputation which the disaster of Sphacteria had impaired. Yet even at Tegea it was signally proved that the Lacedæmonians, though far superior to occasional soldiers, were not equal to professional soldiers. On every point but one the allies were put to rout; but on one point the Lacedæmonians gave way; and that was the point where they were opposed to a brigade of a thousand Argives, picked men, whom the state to which they belonged had during many years trained to war at the public charge, and who were, in fact, a standing army. After the battle of Tegea, many years elapsed before the Lacedæmonians sustained a defeat. At length a calamity befell them which astonished all their neighbours. A division of

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the army of Agesilaus was cut off and destroyed almost to a man; and this exploit, which seemed almost portentous to the Greeks of that age, was achieved by Iphicratæ, at the head of a body of mercenary light infantry. But it was from the day of Leuctra that the fall of Sparta became rapid and violent. Some time before that day the Thebans had resolved to follow the example which had been set many years before by the Argives. Some hundreds of athletic youths, carefully selected, were set apart, under the names of the City Band and the Sacred Band, to form a standing army. Their business was war. They encamped in the citadel; they were supported at the expense of the community; and they became, under assiduous training, the first soldiers in Greece. They were constantly victorious till they were opposed to Philip's admirably-disciplined phalanx at Cheronæ; and even at Cheronæ they were not defeated, but slain in their ranks, fighting to the last. It was this band, directed by the skill of great captains, which gave the decisive blow to the Lacedæmonian power.

The Inns of Court Volunteers will easily dispose of this history and of this inference. We must pass on.

Next to the vein of political moralizing which runs through Lord Macaulay's new volume, as through the former volumes, giving to the whole work on superficial view this air of passing and almost local interest, the most prominent feature, perhaps, is the gallery of portraits. In portraiture Lord Macaulay is popularly considered strong and striking, and in this the popular voice is just. But even in the exercise of this fascinating part of an historian's craft, we may see that Lord Macaulay follows the peculiar bias of his mind. His figures are not men, but qualities and circumstances. Mr. Carlyle, when he presents you to Mirabeau, to Cromwell, to Frederick, seems to have lived with his original; for he gives you the glance of his eye, the tone of his voice, the shade on his brow, the twitch of his nostril. Lord Macaulay tells you an anecdote or two, and describes a few facts and surroundings of the man. These presentations are always made with an immense verbal dexterity, though the one type is followed in all. Take, for example, this very clever portrait of Lord Spencer:

"The precocious maturity of the young man's intellectual and moral character had excited hopes which were not destined to be realized. His knowledge of ancient literature, and his skill in imitating the styles of the masters of Roman eloquence, were applauded by veteran scholars. The sedateness of his deportment and the apparent regularity of his life delighted austere moralists. He was known indeed to have one expensive taste; but it was a taste of the most respectable kind. He loved books, and was bent on forming the most magnificent private library in England. While other heirs of noble houses were inspecting patterns of steinkirks and sword knots, dangling after actresses, or betting on fighting cocks, he was in pursuit of the Mentz editions of Tully's Offices, of the Parmesan Statius, and of the inestimable Virgil of Zarottus. It was natural that high expectations should be formed of the virtue and wisdom of a youth whose very luxury and prodigality had a grave and eruditè air, and that even discerning men should be unable to detect the vices which were hidden under that show of premature sobriety. Spencer was a Whig, unhappy for the Whig party, which, before the unhonoured and unlamented close of his life, was more than once brought to the verge of ruin by his violent temper and his crooked politics. His Whiggism differed widely from that of his father. It was not a languid, speculative preference of one theory of government to another, but a fierce and dominant passion. Unfortunately, though an ardent, it was at the same time a corrupt and degenerate, Whiggism; a Whiggism so narrow and oligarchical as to be little, if at all, preferable to the worst forms

of Toryism. The young lord's imagination had been fascinated by those swelling sentiments of liberty which abound in the Latin poets and orators; and he, like those poets and orators, meant by liberty something very different from the only liberty which is of importance to the happiness of mankind. Like them, he could see no danger to liberty except from kings. A commonwealth, oppressed and pillaged by such men as Optimus and Verres, was free, because it had no king. A member of the Grand Council of Venice, who passed his whole life under tutelage and in fear, who could not travel where he chose, or visit whom he chose, or invest his property as he chose, whose path was beset with spies, who saw at the corners of the streets the mouth of bronze gaping for anonymous accusations against him, and whom the Inquisitors of State could, at any moment, and for any or no reason, arrest, torture, fling into the Grand Canal, was free, because he had no king. To curtail, for the benefit of a small privileged class, prerogatives which the Sovereign possesses and ought to possess for the benefit of the whole nation, was the object on which Spencer's heart was set."

This character is brilliantly done, but we do not think it very fair or just. Another personage is painted with consummate skill and audacity—Cardinal Portocarrero, the minister of Charles the Second, king of Spain. We quote the material part:—

"Portocarrero was one of a race of men of whom we, happily for us, have seen very little, but whose influence has been the curse of Roman Catholic countries. He was, like Sixtus the Fourth and Alexander the Sixth, a politician made out of an impious priest. Such politicians are generally worse than the worst of the laity, more merciless than any ruffian that can be found in camps, more dishonest than any pettifogger who haunts the tribunals. The sanctity of their profession has an unsanctifying influence on them. The lessons of the nursery, the habits of boyhood and of early youth, leave in the minds of the great majority of avowed infidels some traces of religion, which, in seasons of mourning and of sickness, become plainly discernible. But it is scarcely possible that any such trace should remain in the mind of the hypocrite who, during many years, is constantly going through what he considers as the munificence of preaching, saying mass, baptizing, shriving. When an ecclesiastic of this sort mixes in the contests of men of the world, he is indeed much to be dreaded as an enemy, but still more to be dreaded as an ally. From the pulpit where he daily employs his eloquence to embellish what he regards as fables, from the altar whence he daily looks down with secret scorn on the prostrate dupes who believe that he can turn a drop of wine into blood, from the confessional where he daily studies with cold and scientific attention to the morbid anatomy of guilty consciences, he brings to courts some talents which may move the envy of the more cunning and unscrupulous of lay courtiers; a rare skill in reading characters and in managing tempers, a rare art of dissimulation, a rare dexterity in insinuating what it is not safe to affirm or to propose in explicit terms. There are two feelings which often prevent an unprincipled layman from becoming utterly depraved and despicable, domestic feeling, and chivalrous feeling. His heart may be softened by the endearments of a family. His pride may revolt from the thought of doing what does not become a gentleman. But neither with the domestic feeling nor with the chivalrous feeling has the wicked priest any sympathy. His gown excludes him from the closest and most tender of human relations, and at the same time dispenses him from the observation of the fashionable code of honour. Such a priest was Portocarrero; and he seems to have been a consummate master of his craft."

Here, too, we have an assemblage of particulars, well chosen, well contrasted, full of interest, yet the man Portocarrero nowhere appears. How would Mr. Ward or Mr. Macleish set about a cartoon of which Cardinal Portocarrero was to be the central figure from the foregoing description?

We have spoken of Lord Macaulay's story of Spencer Cowper as likely to displease a certain religious community. This story is of deep interest; in its day it shook society like the case of Yelverton *versus* Yelverton:—

"At Hertford resided an opulent Quaker family named Stout. A pretty young woman of this family had lately sunk into a melancholy of a kind not very unusual in girls of strong sensibility and lively imagination who are subject to the restraints of austere religious societies. Her dress, her looks, her gestures, indicated the disturbance of her mind. She sometimes hinted her dislike of the sect to which she belonged. She complained that a canting waterman who was one of the brotherhood had held forth against her at a meeting. She threatened to go beyond sea, to throw herself out of window, to drown herself. To two or three of her associates she owned that she was in love; and on one occasion she plainly said that the man whom she loved was one whom she never could marry. In fact, the object of her fondness was Spencer Cowper, who was already married. She at length wrote to him in language which she never would have used if her intellect had not been disordered. He, like an honest man, took no advantage of her unhappy state of mind, and did his best to avoid her. His prudence mortified her to such a degree that on one occasion she went into fits. It was necessary, however, that he should see her, when he came to Hertford at the spring assizes of 1699. For he had been entrusted with some money which was due to her on mortgage. He called on her for this purpose late one evening, and delivered a bag of gold to her. She pressed him to be the guest of her family; but he excused himself and retired. The next morning she was found dead among the stakes of a mill dam on the stream called the Priory River."

The coroner's jury found that Miss Stout had destroyed herself in a fit of temporary insanity; but the Stout family was not satisfied with their verdict. As Lord Macaulay puts it, "her family was unwilling to admit that she had shortened her own life, and looked about for somebody who might be accused of murdering her." At all events, their suspicions fell upon the man who had last been with her, who was suspected of having been her lover, and who certainly could not have been her lover without being also a villain. They got some evidence, such as it was:—

"It chanced that two attorneys and a scrivener, who had come down from town to the Hertford assizes, had been overheard, on that unhappy night, talking over their wine about the charms and flirtations of the handsome Quaker girl, in the light way in which such subjects are sometimes discussed even at the circuit tables and mess tables of our more refined generation. Some wild words, susceptible of a double meaning, were used about the way in which she had jilted one lover, and the way in which another lover would punish her for her coquetry. On no better grounds than these her relations imagined that Spencer Cowper had, with the assistance of these three retainers of the law, strangled her, and thrown her corpse into the water. There was absolutely no evidence of the crime. There was no evidence that any one of the accused had any motive to commit such a crime; there was no evidence that Spencer Cowper had any connexion with the persons who were said to be his accomplices. One of those persons, indeed, he had never seen. But no story is too absurd to be imposed on minds blinded by religious and political fanaticism. The Quakers and the Tories joined to raise a formidable clamour. The Quakers had, in those days, no scruples about capital punishments. They would, indeed, as Spencer Cowper said bitterly, but too truly, rather send four innocent men to the gallows than let it be believed that one who had their light within her had committed suicide. The Tories exulted in the prospect of winning two seats from the Whigs. The whole kingdom was divided between Stouts and Cowpers. At the summer assizes, Hertford was crowded with anxious faces from London, and

from parts of England more distant than London. The prosecution was conducted with a malignity and unfairness which to us seems almost incredible; and, unfortunately, the dullest and most ignorant judge of the twelve was on the bench. Cowper defended himself and those who were said to be his accomplices with admirable ability and self-possession. His brother, much more distressed than himself, sat near him through the long agony of that day. The case against the prisoners rested chiefly on the vulgar error that a human body, found, as this poor girl's body had been found, floating in water, must have been thrown into the water while still alive. To prove this doctrine, the counsel for the Crown called medical practitioners, of whom nothing is now known except that some of them had been active against the Whigs at Hertford elections. To confirm the evidence of these gentlemen, two or three sailors were put into the witness-box. On the other side, appeared an array of men of science whose names are still remembered. Among them was William Cowper, not a kinsman of the defendant, but the most celebrated anatomist that England had then produced. He was, indeed, the founder of a dynasty illustrious in the history of science, for he was the teacher of William Cheselden, and William Cheselden was the teacher of John Hunter. On the same side appeared Samuel Garth, who, among the physicians of the capital, had no rival except Radcliffe and Hans Sloane, the founder of the magnificent Museum which is one of the glories of our country. The attempt of the prosecutors to make the superstitions of the forecastle evidence for the purpose of taking away the lives of men was treated by these philosophers with just disdain. The stupid judge asked Garth what he could say in answer to the testimony of the seamen. 'My Lord,' replied Garth, 'I say that they are mistaken. I will find seamen in abundance to swear that they have known whistling raise the wind.' The jury found the prisoners Not Guilty; and the report carried back to London by persons who had been present at the trial was that everybody applauded the verdict, and that even the Stouts seemed to be convinced of their error. It is certain, however, that the malevolence of the defeated party soon revived in all its energy. The lives of the four men who had just been absolved were again attacked by means of the most absurd and odious proceeding known to our old law, the appeal of murder. This attack, too, failed. Every artifice of chicanery was at length exhausted; and nothing was left to the disappointed sect and the disappointed faction except to calumniate those whom it had been found impossible to murder. In a succession of libels, Spencer Cowper was held up to the execration of the public. But the public did him justice. He rose to high eminence in his profession: he at length took his seat, with general applause, on the judicial bench, and there distinguished himself by the humanity which he never failed to show to unhappy men who stood, as he had once stood, at the bar. Many who seldom trouble themselves about pedigrees may be interested by learning that he was the grandfather of that excellent man and excellent poet William Cowper, whose writings have long been peculiarly loved and prized by the members of the religious community which, under a strong delusion, sought to slay his innocent progenitor.

In a note to this passage, Lord Macaulay expresses his surprise that no one of Cowper's many biographers, nor even Cowper himself, refers to this story about his grandfather—a fact at which we cannot pretend to share in any part of his Lordship's surprise. Cowper himself would be extremely unlikely to recall such a circumstance as that his grandfather had been tried for murder. Southey, Chalmers and Co. probably never heard the romantic and unpleasant tale.

No less romantic is the story of Lord Clancarty and his young wife, which is told by Lord Macaulay in his best style:—

"In the case of one great offender there were some circumstances which attracted general

interest, and which might furnish a good subject to a novelist or a dramatist. Near fourteen years before this time, Sunderland, then Secretary of State to Charles the Second, had married his daughter Lady Elizabeth Spence to Donough MacCarthy, Earl of Clancarty, the lord of an immense domain in Munster. Both the bridegroom and the bride were mere children, the bridegroom only fifteen, the bride only eleven. After the ceremony they were separated; and many years full of strange vicissitudes elapsed before they again met. The boy soon visited his estates in Ireland. He had been bred a member of the Church of England; but his opinions and his practice were loose. He found himself among kinsmen who were zealous Roman Catholics. A Roman Catholic king was on the throne. To turn Roman Catholic was the best recommendation to favour both at Whitehall and at Dublin Castle. Clancarty speedily changed his religion, and from a dissolute Protestant became a dissolute Papist. After the Revolution he followed the fortunes of James; sat in the Celtic Parliament which met at the King's Inns; commanded a regiment in the Celtic army; was forced to surrender himself to Marlborough at Cork; was sent to England, and was imprisoned in the Tower. The Clancarty estates, which were supposed to yield a rent of not much less than ten thousand a year, were confiscated. They were charged with an annuity to the Earl's brother, and with another annuity to his wife: but the greater part was bestowed by the King on Lord Woodstock, the eldest son of Portland. During some time, the prisoner's life was not safe. For the popular voice accused him of outrages for which the utmost license of civil war would not furnish a plea. It is said that he was threatened with an appeal of murder by the widow of a Protestant clergyman who had been put to death during the troubles. After passing three years in confinement, Clancarty made his escape to the Continent, was graciously received at St. Germain, and was entrusted with the command of a corps of Irish refugees. When the treaty of Ryswick had put an end to the hope that the banished dynasty would be restored by foreign arms, he flattered himself that he might be able to make his peace with the English Government. But he was grievously disappointed. The interest of his wife's family was undoubtedly more than sufficient to obtain a pardon for him. But on that interest he could not reckon. The selfish, base, covetous father-in-law was not at all desirous to have a highborn beggar and the posterity of a highborn beggar to maintain. The ruling passion of the brother-in-law was a stern and acrimonious party spirit. He could not bear to think that he was so nearly connected with an enemy of the Revolution and of the Bill of Rights, and would with pleasure have seen the odious tie severed even by the hand of the executioner. There was one, however, from whom the ruined, expatriated, proscribed young nobleman might hope to find a kind reception. He stole across the Channel in disguise, presented himself at Sunderland's door, and requested to see Lady Clancarty. He was charged, he said, with a message to her from her mother, who was then lying on a sick bed at Windsor. By this fiction he obtained admission, made himself known to his wife, whose thoughts had probably been constantly fixed on him during many years, and prevailed on her to give him the most tender proofs of an affection sanctioned by the laws both of God and of man. The secret was soon discovered and betrayed by a waiting woman. Spencer learned that very night that his sister had admitted her husband to her apartment. The fanatical young Whig, burning with animosity which he mistook for virtue, and eager to emulate the Corinthian who assassinated his brother, and the Roman who passed sentence of death on his son, flew to Vernon's office, gave information that the Irish rebel, who had once already escaped from custody, was in hiding hard by, and procured a warrant and a guard of soldiers. Clancarty was found in the arms of his wife, and dragged to the Tower. She followed him and implored permission to partake his cell. These events produced a great stir throughout the society of London. Sunder-

land professed everywhere that he heartily approved of his son's conduct: but the public had made up its mind about Sunderland's veracity, and paid very little attention to his professions on this or on any other subject. In general, honourable men of both parties, whatever might be their opinion of Clancarty, felt great compassion for his mother who was dying of a broken heart, and his poor young wife who was begging pitifully to be admitted within the Traitor's gate. Devonshire and Bedford joined with Ormond to ask for mercy. The aid of a still more powerful intercessor was called in. Lady Russell was esteemed by the King as a valuable friend; she was venerated by the nation generally as a saint, the widow of a martyr: and, when she deigned to solicit favours, it was scarcely possible that she should solicit in vain. She naturally felt a strong sympathy for the unhappy couple, who were parted by the walls of that gloomy old fortress in which she had herself exchanged the last sad endearments with one whose image was never absent from her. She took Lady Clancarty with her to the palace, obtained access to William, and put a petition into his hand. Clancarty was pardoned on condition that he should leave the kingdom and never return to it. A pension was granted to him, small when compared with the magnificent inheritance which he had forfeited, but quite sufficient to enable him to live like a gentleman on the Continent. He retired, accompanied by his Elizabeth, to Altona."

Such stories as the above sample make this volume of fragments very pleasant reading.

On the Darien scheme, and on the Scottish character in connexion with it, we have this stately and elaborate paragraph:—

"That the Scotch are a people eminently intelligent, wary, resolute and self-possessed is obvious to the most superficial observation. That they are a people peculiarly liable to dangerous fits of passion and delusions of the imagination is less generally acknowledged, but is not less true. The whole kingdom seemed to have gone mad. Paterson had acquired an influence resembling rather that of the founder of a new religion, that of a Mahomet, that of a Joseph Smith, than that of a commercial projector. Blind faith in a religion, fanatical zeal for a religion, are too common to astonish us. But such faith and zeal seem strangely out of place in the transactions of the money market. It is true that we are judging after the event. But before the event materials sufficient for the forming of a sound judgment were within the reach of all who cared to use them. It seems incredible that men of sense, who had only a vague and general notion of Paterson's scheme, should have staked everything on the success of that scheme. It seems more incredible still that men to whom the details of that scheme had been confided should not have looked into any of the common books of history or geography in which an account of Darien might have been found, and should not have asked themselves the simple question, whether Spain was likely to endure a Scotch colony in the heart of her Transatlantic dominions. It was notorious that she claimed the sovereignty of the isthmus or species, nay on solid, grounds. A Spaniard had been the first discoverer of the coast of Darien. A Spaniard had built a town and established a government on that coast. A Spaniard had, with great labour and peril, crossed the mountainous neck of land, had seen rolling beneath him the vast Pacific, never before revealed to European eyes, had descended, sword in hand, into the waves up to his girdle, and had there solemnly taken possession of sea and shore in the name of the Crown of Castile. It was true that the region which Paterson described as a paradise had been found by the first Castilian settlers to be a land of misery and death. The poisonous air, exhaled from rank jungle and stagnant water, had compelled them to remove to the neighbouring haven of Panama; and the Red Indians had been contemptuously permitted to live after their own fashion on the pestilential soil. But that soil was still considered, and might well be considered, by Spain as her own. In many countries there were tracts of morass, of mountains, of forest, in which governments did not think it

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worth while to be at the expense of maintaining order, and in which rude tribes enjoyed by connivance a kind of independence. It was not necessary for the members of the Company of Scotland trading to Africa and the Indies to look very far for an example. In some highland districts, not more than a hundred miles from Edinburgh, dwelt clans which had always regarded the authority of King, Parliament, Privy Council and Court of Session, quite as little as the aboriginal population of Darien regarded the authority of the Spanish Viceroy and Audiences. Yet it would surely have been thought an outrageous violation of public law in the King of Spain to take possession of Appin and Lochaber. And would it be a less outrageous violation of public law in the Scots to seize on a province in the very centre of his possessions, on the plea that this province was in the same state in which Appin and Lochaber had been during centuries?"

The dishonesty of the Scotch is still further exposed:—

"So grossly unjust was Paterson's scheme; and yet it was less unjust than impolitic. Torpid as Spain had become, there was still one point on which she was exquisitely sensitive. The slightest encroachment of any other European power even on the outskirts of her American dominions sufficed to disturb her repose and to brace her paralysed nerves. To imagine that she would tamely suffer adventurers from one of the most insignificant kingdoms of the Old World to form a settlement in the midst of her empire, within a day's sail of Portobello on one side and of Carthagena on the other, was ludicrously absurd. She would have been just as likely to let them take possession of the Escorial. It was, therefore, evident that, before the new Company could even begin its commercial operations, there must be a war with Spain and a complete triumph over Spain. What means had the Company of waging such a war, and what chance of achieving such a triumph? The ordinary revenue of Scotland in time of peace was between sixty and seventy thousand a year. The extraordinary supplies granted to the Crown during the war with France had amounted perhaps to as much more. Spain, it is true, was no longer the Spain of Pavia and Lepanto. But, even in her decay, she possessed in Europe resources which exceeded thirty-fold those of Scotland; and in America, where the struggle must take place, the disproportion was still greater. The Spanish fleets and arsenals were doubtless in wretched condition. But there were Spanish fleets; there were Spanish arsenals. The galleons, which sailed every year from Seville to the neighbourhood of Darien, and from the neighbourhood of Darien back to Seville, were in tolerable condition, and formed, by themselves, a considerable armament. Scotland had not a single ship of the line, nor a single dockyard where such a ship could be built. A marine sufficient to overpower that of Spain must be, not merely equipped and manned, but created. An armed force sufficient to defend the isthmus against the whole power of the viceroyalty of Mexico and Peru must be sent over five thousand miles of ocean. What was the charge of such an expedition likely to be? Oliver had, in the preceding generation, wrested a West Indian island from Spain; but, in order to do this, Oliver, a man who thoroughly understood the administration of war, who wasted nothing, and who was excellently served, had been forced to spend, in a single year, on his navy alone, twenty times the ordinary revenue of Scotland; and, since his days, war had been constantly becoming more and more costly. It was plain that Scotland could not alone support the charge of a contest with the enemy whom Paterson was bent on provoking. And what assistance was she likely to have from abroad? Undoubtedly the vast colonial empire and the narrow colonial policy of Spain were regarded with an evil eye by more than one great maritime power. But there was no great maritime power which would not far rather have seen the isthmus between the Atlantic and the Pacific in the hands of Spain than in the hands of the Darien Company. Lewis could not but dread whatever tended to aggrandise

a state governed by William. To Holland the East India trade was as the apple of her eye. She had been the chief gainer by the discoveries of Gama; and it might be expected that she would do all that could be done by craft, and, if need were, by violence, rather than suffer any rival to be to her what she had been to Venice. England remained; and Paterson was sanguine enough to flatter himself that England might be induced to lend her powerful aid to the Company. He and Lord Belhaven repaired to London, opened an office in Clement's Lane, formed a Board of Directors auxiliary to the Central Board at Edinburgh, and invited the capitalists of the Royal Exchange to subscribe for the stock which had not been reserved for Scotchmen resident in Scotland. A few moneyed men were allured by the bait: but the clamour of the City was loud and menacing; and from the City a feeling of indignation spread fast through the country. In this feeling there was undoubtedly a large mixture of evil. National antipathy operated on some minds, religious antipathy on others. But it is impossible to deny that the anger which Paterson's schemes excited throughout the south of the island was, in the main, just and reasonable. Though it was not yet generally known in what precise spot his colony was to be planted, there could be little doubt that he intended to occupy some part of America; and there could be as little doubt that such occupation would be resisted. There would be a maritime war; and such a war Scotland had no means of carrying on. The state of her finances was such that she must be quite unable to fit out even a single squadron of moderate size. Before the conflict had lasted three months, she would have neither money nor credit left. These things were obvious to every coffeehouse politician; and it was impossible to believe that they had escaped the notice of men so able and well informed as some who sat in the Privy Council and Parliament at Edinburgh. In one way only could the conduct of these schemers be explained. They meant to make a dupe and a tool of the Southron. The two British kingdoms were so closely connected, physically and politically, that it was scarcely possible for one of them to be at peace with a power with which the other was at war. If the Scotch drew King William into a quarrel, England must, from regard to her own dignity which was bound up with his support in it. She was to be tricked into a bloody and expensive contest in the event of which she had no interest; nay, into a contest in which victory would be a greater calamity to her than defeat. She was to lavish her wealth and the lives of her seamen, in order that a set of cunning foreigners might enjoy a monopoly by which she would be the chief sufferer. She was to conquer and defend provinces for this Scotch Corporation; and her reward was to be that her merchants were to be undersold, her customers decoyed away, her exchequer beggared. There would be an end to the disputes between the old East India Company and the new East India Company; for both Companies would be ruined alike. The two great springs of revenue would be dried up together. What would be the receipt of the Customs, what of the Excise, when vast magazines of sugar, rum, tobacco, coffee, chocolate, tea, spices, silks, muslins, all duty free, should be formed along the estuaries of the Forth and of the Clyde, and along the border from the mouth of the Esk to the mouth of the Tweed? What army, what fleet, would be sufficient to protect the interests of the government and of the fair trader when the whole kingdom of Scotland should be turned into one great smuggling establishment? Paterson's plan was simply this, that England should first spend millions in defence of the trade of his Company, and should then be plundered of twice as many millions by means of that very trade."

We have spoken of Lord Macaulay's tendency to moralize and sermonize, not so much by way of objection as by way of characterization. The sermon, when we get it, is always eloquent, and the moral is very often sagacious and suggestive. We have a capital example in the whole presentation of Charles Montagu, Earl of Halifax. At

the moment when this favourite of fortune is about to fall before his enemies, we are told:—

"Great wealth, suddenly acquired, is not often enjoyed with moderation, dignity and good taste. It is therefore not impossible that there may have been some small foundation for the extravagant stories with which malevolent pamphleteers amused the leisure of malevolent squires. In such stories Montagu played a conspicuous part. He contrived, it was said, to be at once as rich as Croesus and as riotous as Mark Antony. His stud and his cellar were beyond all price. His very lacqueys turned up their noses at claret. He and his confederates were described as spending the immense sums of which they had plundered the public in banquets of four courses, such as Lucullus might have eaten in the Hall of Apollo. A supper for twelve Whigs, enriched by jobs, grants, bribes, lucky purchases and lucky sales of stock, was cheap at eighty pounds. At the end of every course all the fine linen on the table was changed. Those who saw the pyramids of choice wild fowl imagined that the entertainment had been prepared for fifty epicures at least. Only six birds' nests from the Nicobar islands were to be had in London: and all the six, bought at an enormous price, were smoking in soup on the board. These fables were destitute alike of probability and of evidence. But Grub Street could devise no fable injurious to Montague which was not certain to find credence in more than half the manor houses and vicarages of England."

Of course, this hatred of Grub Street towards the great financier has to be explained, and the morals of such an antagonism between the wretched scribblers and the man of genius has to be put in a powerful light, which is done very much to the disadvantage and dismay of Grub Street:—

"It may seem strange that a man who loved literature passionately, and rewarded literary merit munificently, should have been more savagely reviled both in prose and verse than almost any other politician in our history. But there is really no cause for wonder. A powerful, liberal and discerning protector of genius is very likely to be mentioned with honour long after his death, but is very likely also to be most brutally libelled during his life. In every age there will be twenty bad writers for one good one; and every bad writer will think himself a good one. A ruler who neglects all men of letters alike does not wound the self-love of any man of letters. But a ruler who shows favour to the few men of letters who deserve it inflicts on the many the miseries of disappointed hope, of affronted pride, of jealousy cruel as the grave. All the rage of a multitude of authors, irritated at once by the sting of want and by the sting of vanity, is directed against the unfortunate patron. It is true that the thanks and eulogies of those whom he has befriended will be remembered when the invectives of those whom he has neglected are forgotten. But in his own time the obloquy will probably make as much noise and find as much credit as the panegyric. The name of Maecenas has been made immortal by Horace and Virgil, and is popularly used to designate an accomplished statesman, who lives in close intimacy with the greatest poets and wits of his time, and heaps benefits on them with the most delicate generosity. But it may well be suspected that, if the verses of Alpinus and Fannius, of Bavus and Maevius, had come down to us, we might see Maecenas represented as the most niggardly and tasteless of human beings, nay, as a man who, on system, neglected and persecuted all intellectual superiority. It is certain that Montague was thus represented by contemporary scribblers. They told the world in essays, in letters, in dialogues, in ballads, that he would do nothing for anybody without being paid either in money or in some vile services; that he not only never rewarded merit, but hated it whenever he saw it; that he practised the meanest arts for the purpose of depressing it; that those whom he protected and enriched were not men of ability and virtue, but wretches distinguished only by their sycophancy and their low debaucheries. And this was said of the man who

made the fortune of Joseph Addison and of Isaac Newton."

Of course, there is a splendid exaggeration in all this. Many of those who attacked Montagu were his equals in parts and learning; and it is quite gratuitous to say, that Montagu made the fortunes of Joseph Addison and Isaac Newton. He was certainly open to the attacks of his malignant and unrelenting enemies. But, in Lord Macaulay's eyes, some men can do no wrong, other men can do nothing right. Somers is all light; Churchill, all shade. We see them in these pages as we find them in the party pamphlets of their day; for Lord Macaulay was a politician before he became an historian; and he fights for his side like the hottest writer in the contemporary newspapers. King William's coarseness, cruelty and sensuality are passed without reproof. When Louis proposes to himself to offer William a pension, on condition of his entering into a new treaty of Dover and dismissing his troublesome and niggardly Parliament for good, Lord Macaulay considers it "a significant circumstance." He spends no withering sarcasm on the long descent in virtue which laid William open to the suspicion of being capable of such an act of political treachery and personal corruption. Suppose the French King had proposed to himself to buy up Marlborough!

This volume, which suggests so many topics of interest, closes with a carefully-prepared sketch of William's death—finished, or nearly finished, we think, as regards the mere literary art. This sketch we transfer to our pages:—

"Meanwhile reports about the state of the King's health were constantly becoming more and more alarming. His medical advisers, both English and Dutch, were at the end of their resources. He had consulted by letter all the most eminent physicians of Europe; and, as he was apprehensive that they might return flattering answers if they knew who he was, he had written under feigned names. To Fagon he had described himself as a parish priest. Fagon replied, somewhat bluntly, that such symptoms could have only one meaning, and that the only advice which he had to give to the sick man was to prepare himself for death. Having obtained this plain answer, William consulted Fagon again without disguise, and obtained some prescriptions which were thought to have a little retarded the approach of the inevitable hour. But the great King's days were numbered. Headaches and shivering fits returned on him almost daily. He still rode and even hunted; but he had no longer that firm seat or that perfect command of the bridle for which he had once been renowned. Still all his care was for the future. The filial respect and tenderness of Albemarle had been almost a necessity of life to him. But it was of importance that Heinsius should be fully informed both as to the whole plan of the next campaign and as to the state of the preparations. Albemarle was in full possession of the King's views on these subjects. He was therefore sent to the Hague. Heinsius was at that time suffering from indisposition, which was indeed a trifle when compared with the maladies under which William was sinking. But in the nature of William there was none of that selfishness which is the too common vice of invalids. On the twentieth of February he sent to Heinsius a letter in which he did not even allude to his own sufferings and infirmities. 'I am,' he said, 'infinitely concerned to learn that your health is not yet quite re-established. May God be pleased to grant you a speedy recovery. I am unalterably your good friend, William.' Those were the last lines of that long correspondence. On the twentieth of February William was ambling on a favourite horse, named Sorrel, through the park of Hampton Court. He urged his horse to strike into a gallop just at the spot where a mole had been at work. Sorrel stumbled on the mole-hill, and went down on his knees. The King fell off, and broke his collar bone. The bone was set; and he returned

to Kensington in his coach. The jolting of the rough roads of that time made it necessary to reduce the fracture again. To a young and vigorous man such an accident would have been a trifle. But the frame of William was not in a condition to bear even the slightest shock. He felt that his time was short, and grieved, with a grief such as only noble spirits feel, to think that he must leave his work but half finished. It was possible that he might still live until one of his plans should be carried into execution. He had long known that the relation in which England and Scotland stood to each other was at best precarious, and often unfriendly, and that it might be doubted whether, in an estimate of the British power, the resources of the smaller country ought not to be deducted from those of the larger. Recent events had proved that, without doubt, the two kingdoms could not possibly continue for another year to be on the terms on which they had been during the preceding century, and that there must be between them either absolute union or deadly enmity. Their enmity would bring frightful calamities, not on themselves alone, but on all the civilized world. Their union would be the best security for the prosperity of both, for the internal tranquillity of the island, for the just balance of power among European states, and for the immunities of all Protestant countries. On the 28th of February the Commons listened with uncovered heads to the last message that bore William's sign manual. An unhappy accident, he told them, had forced him to make to them in writing a communication which he would gladly have made from the throne. He had in the first year of his reign, expressed his desire to see an union accomplished between England and Scotland. He was convinced that nothing could more conduce to the safety and happiness of both. He should think it his peculiar felicity if, before the close of his reign, some happy expedient could be devised for making the two kingdoms one; and he, in the most earnest manner, recommended the question to the consideration of the Houses. It was resolved that the message should be taken into consideration on Saturday the 7th of March. But on the 1st of March humours of menacing appearance showed themselves in the king's knee. On the 4th of March he was attacked by fever; on the 5th his strength failed greatly; and on the 6th he was scarcely kept alive by cordials. The Abjuration Bill and money bill were awaiting his assent. That assent he felt that he should not be able to give in person. He therefore ordered a commission to be prepared for his signature. His hand was now too weak to form the letters of his name, and it was suggested that a stamp should be prepared. On the 7th of March the stamp was ready. The Lord Keeper and the clerks of the Parliament came according to usage, to witness the signing of the commission. But they were detained some hours in the ante-chamber while he was in one of the paroxysms of his malady. Meanwhile the Houses were sitting. It was Saturday, the 7th, the day on which the Commons had resolved to take into consideration the question of the union with Scotland. But that subject was not mentioned. It was known that the King had but a few hours to live; and the members asked each other anxiously whether it was likely that the Abjuration and money bills would be passed before he died. After sitting long in the expectation of a message, the Commons adjourned till six in the afternoon. By that time William had recovered himself sufficiently to put the stamp on the parchment which authorized his commissioners to act for him. In the evening, when the Houses had assembled, Black Rod knocked. The Commons were summoned to the bar of the Lords; the commission was read, the Abjuration Bill and the Malt Bill became laws, and both Houses adjourned till nine o'clock in the morning of the following day. The following day was Sunday. But there was little chance that William would live through the night. It was of the highest importance that, within the shortest possible time after his decease, the successor designated by the Bill of Rights and the Act of Succession should receive the homage of the Estates of the Realm, and be publicly proclaimed in the Council; and the most rigid Pharisee in

the Society for the Reformation of Manners could hardly deny that it was lawful to save the state even on the Sabbath. The King meanwhile was sinking fast. Albemarle had arrived at Kensington from the Hague, exhausted by rapid travelling. His master kindly bade him go to rest for some hours, and then summoned him to make his report. That report was in all respects satisfactory. The States-General were in the best temper; the troops, the provisions and the magazines were in the best order. Everything was in readiness for an early campaign. William received the intelligence with the calmness of a man whose work was done. He was under no illusion as to his danger. 'I am fast drawing,' he said, 'to my end.' His end was worthy of his life. His intellect was not for a moment clouded. His fortitude was the more admirable because he was not willing to die. He had very lately said to one of those whom he most loved:—'You know that I never died; there have been times when I should have wished it; but, now that this great new prospect is opening before me, I do wish to stay here a little longer.' Yet no weakness, no querulousness, disgraced the noble close of that noble career. To the physicians the King returned his thanks graciously and gently. 'I know that you have done all that skill and learning could do for me; but the case is beyond your art; and I submit.' From the words which escaped him he seemed to be frequently engaged in mental prayer. Burnet and Tenison remained many hours in the sick room. He professed to them his firm belief in the truth of the Christian religion, and received the sacrament from their hands with great seriousness. The ante-chambers were crowded all night with lords and privy councillors. He ordered several of them to be called in, and exerted himself to take leave of them with a few kind and cheerful words. Among the English who were admitted to his bedside were Devonshire and Ormonde. But there were in the crowd those who felt as no Englishman could feel, friends of his youth who had been true to him, and to whom he had been true, through all vicissitudes of fortune; who had served him with unalterable fidelity when his Secretaries of State, his Treasury and his Admiralty had betrayed him; who had never on any field of battle, or in an atmosphere tainted with loathsome and deadly disease, shrunk from placing their own lives in jeopardy to save his, and whose truth he had at the cost of his own popularity rewarded with bounteous munificence. He strained his feeble voice to thank Auverquerque for the affectionate and loyal services of thirty years. To Albemarle he gave the keys of his closet, and of his private drawers. 'You know,' he said, 'what to do with them.' By this time he could scarcely respire. 'Can this,' he said to the physicians, 'last long?' He was told that the end was approaching. He swallowed a cordial, and asked for Bentinck. Those were his last articulate words. Bentinck instantly came to the bedside, bent down, and placed his ear close to the King's mouth. The lips of the dying man moved; but nothing could be heard. The King took the hand of his earliest friend, and pressed it tenderly to his heart. In that moment, no doubt, all that had cast a slight passing cloud over their long and pure friendship was forgotten. It was now between seven and eight in the morning. He closed his eyes, and gasped for breath. The bishop knelt down and read the commendatory prayer. When it ended William was no more. When his remains were laid out, it was found that he wore next to his skin a small piece of black silk riband. The lords in waiting ordered it to be taken off. It contained a gold ring and a lock of the hair of Mary."

There is little more to say of these splendid fragments from an unfulfilled design. Lady Trevelyan has done very wisely in leaving them to speak for themselves. The form in which they appear is peculiar—text wholly detached from notes or references, as if they had a separate and independent existence in space. Thus, the statements now made are unsupported by anything like originals. Lord

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Macaulay's plan was, to compose his narrative without having his authorities open before him, and, when his story was told, to stick in the references here and there. Our glimpse into the secrets of his plan of composition may help us to understand some of the peculiarities of his text. There is a good Index, and, altogether, this 'History of England' is in as perfect a state as it is now capable of attaining.

A Seaman's Narrative of his Adventures during a Captivity among Chinese Pirates, on the Coast of Cochin-China, and afterwards during a Journey on Foot across that Country, in the Years 1857-8. By Edward Brown. (Westerton.)

The spirit of vagabondism properly controlled is not an unheroic spirit; and the man who will rather do anything and go anywhere than lounge a life out in one spot doing nothing, is a good man in his way, and most assuredly belongs to the Anglo-Saxon family. Accordingly, here is Edward Brown, hard-up on the beach at Hong-Kong, in 1856. He is a young sailor, with little worldly wealth about him, save a Bible, the gift of the fond mother in the far-off home; and he is suddenly, with dozens of fellow-seamen, cast adrift; but he has his "weather-eye" open, and, with his heart all for the sea, accepts the bâton of a police-constable, and keeps order among the Hong-Kong rabble at a starvation stipend. This dignity he is suddenly surrenders, in order to become master of a Chinese lorch and a Chinese crew. This engagement was accepted by him at the precise time when the Celestial authorities were offering thousands of taels for every English head brought in to the paternal Government. This fact, which would have been of so disagreeable an aspect to many, only gave a zest to his new way of life, and therewith he "sails o'er the deep, and away sails he," the white-devil Captain of a Hong-Kong Happy-go-Lucky, bound for Wai-how. The party went out in a storm, were tempest-tost and famine-stricken; and, finally, falling in with a pirate fleet, kept up a gallant fight, till, overcome by superiority of numbers, they were compelled to surrender to a very magnificent Chinese King of the Seas.

In company with the conquering rover's fleet, the heroic English vagabond remained in the enjoyment of full liberty to do whatever he pleased, except displease his captors, or attempt to leave their pleasant society. It was a society which, ultimately, became perfectly intolerable, and to which the disgusted Brown bade farewell, by a plunge in the sea and a swim for it, amid parting shots, in nowise intended for complimentary salutes on the side of his recent owners.

This Ulysses of the Eastern waters made his way painfully to the shore—

Heaved by the surge, and wafted by the breeze.

No white-armed nymphs cleaved the waves and drew him onwards; but what was much more to the purpose, he was seized, with friendly roughness, by a group of Cochinchinese fishermen, who took him to their homes, and were considerably puzzled what to do with him. For some months he had but an ill time of it. Accounted a guest, he was throughout treated as a prisoner, severity and kindness alternating. He was passed from mandarin to mandarin, from village to village, prison to prison, pulled about curiously by rustic squires and their ladies who had never before beheld a Fanqui, and in disagreeable doubt whether he would be safely forwarded to Singapore or sent to Canton in separate pieces, in order that the consigners might obtain the reward offered by Yeh for an Eng-

lishman produced to him in the carcase or in joints. As he was, after much delay, kindly despatched to Singapore, Mr. Brown looks upon the Cochinchinese character with a natural amount of partiality. There seems little doubt that, individually and nationally, that character is superior to the Chinese proper; but we are led to suspect that he might not have escaped so happily but for the circumstance that the French invasion of the country was then imminent, and the Cochinchinese officials had a dreamy sort of idea that, by great generosity vouchsafed to their waif from the sea, they might possibly secure some aid or friendly interference at the hands of the English, or the Indo-English nearer to their menaced country. Finally, the wanderer reached Campoot, where the English captains gave him a national welcome; and the fates, kind to him to the last, drowned an English mate, to whose office the new comer immediately succeeded. Nothing, all things considered, could have been better devised; and, at the end of the book, away floats Brown for Amoy, with the ensign half-mast high in honour of poor Dodds, capsized in a squall while out on a pleasure excursion, and returned in the log as "not found."

As an author, our adventurer writes without any pretensions to style, narrating, in the simplest way possible, whatever he saw or thought he saw. Among his studies of Cochinchinese character was one of a captive whose most earnest desire was to have his family with him:—

"It appears that this man had been committed four years ago, for having stolen a bag of white rice; and his sentence was, as usual, to remain in prison till further orders. After he had been here about twelve months, he got permission (through good conduct) to have his wife and family with him. He had three children, two girls and a boy, whose ages varied from two to six years. His family had not joined him more than six months, when he sold the eldest, a girl six years of age, for fifty thousand cash, or about thirteen dollars. Six months after this, he sold the youngest, a little girl three years of age, for twenty thousand cash, or about five dollars. One year after this, he sold his little boy, five years of age, for the small sum of seventeen thousand cash, or a little more than four dollars; and now he was about to sell his wife. She was a good-looking Cochinchinese woman, about twenty-seven years of age. He had been married to her, after the Cochinchinese form, by buying her, ten years ago. I was present when the poor woman was brought out; she was crying bitterly; and, when her husband spoke to her, she appeared to turn from him with disgust. I pitied her, not merely for her present trouble, but for what she must have suffered on being separated from her children. The day had now arrived when she too must be sold, and for what? not to enable her husband to procure the necessities of life, but to satisfy his unnatural desire to obtain opium. The poor woman was handed over to three savage-looking men, one of them receiving a paper, or bill of sale, signed by the husband. They also received a bundle of her clothes; and, after paying the purchase-money, they led her away. She was sold for eighty thousand cash, or about twenty dollars."

The following passage will explain the "idea" for which the French have been, and are about to be, fighting in these remote regions:—

"In the year 1774, the usurper, Caung-shung, was deposed by three brothers of pure Cochinchinese extraction, who reigned to the satisfaction of the people. The son of Caung-chung succeeded in getting himself proclaimed king in the place of his father, who had been killed by the new sovereigns. He was unsuccessful, however, in establishing his authority, and had to fly to Siam. He entrusted a French priest, named Adran, with the charge of his son (then about thirteen years of age), to whom he had been tutor. Adran took this young prince

to France, where he prevailed upon the reigning monarch to espouse the cause of the aspiring lad; and a treaty was signed at Versailles, between him and Louis XVI., in the year 1788, in which it was stipulated on the one part, that France should place under the orders of the King of Cochinchina a squadron of twenty ships of war, five complete European regiments, and two regiments of native colonial troops; and furnish him with one million dollars, one-half to be contributed in specie, and the remainder to be laid out in salt-petre, cannon, muskets, and other military stores. On the other part, the King of Cochinchina agreed to furnish stores, &c., for fourteen ships of the line; to permit consuls of France to reside in all parts of his dominions; to cede the bay and peninsula of Turon in perpetuity; to construct roads; and, in case of war in India, to furnish fourteen thousand men for the aid of France, and sixty thousand to defend any portion of Cochinchina. Armed with this document, honoured with the title of Bishop of Cochinchina, and entrusted with the office of ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, Adran left France with his charge, in the frigate *Medusa*, in 1789. Passing over various particulars, I may state that, by the French aid, Caung-shung again ascended the throne, which had been usurped by his ancestors. But upon his death, and that of his son, who succeeded him, French influence declined, and the most bitter system of persecution has followed. The French missionaries have been imprisoned, tortured, and crucified, driven to live in holes and crannies of the rocks, and perform the rites of their religion in secret, and in the daily expectation of a bloody martyrdom. I must say that France has a perfect right to avenge the indignities and barbarities committed upon her subjects; or to spread her influence over those portions of Asia that are not yet obedient to the decrees of Europe; but the visible determination to form a permanent settlement introduces a new element into the affair. Of course, no person who is interested in British interest in the East can regard the formation of a naval and military depot in any part of Cochinchina by a powerful European state otherwise than as fraught with injury to Great Britain, in respect to her trade in the China Sea, and the Straits' settlements. Hitherto the British empire in Asia has had no enemy, within ten thousand miles, capable of even a menace. The French possess Pondicherry it is true; but Pondicherry is no refuge for a fleet, and can supply no army."

Meanwhile, there are indifferent missionaries as well as cruel natives in those parts:—

"Strange to say, I had never seen a French priest during my whole stay in the country; though it appears that one of them knew I was staying at Con-kow. I think, as these priests have access to most parts of the country, he might have visited me; nor do I consider that he was setting a good example of kindness, in showing no anxiety for my safety; for, though he might not be a countryman of mine, he was a European, and the Cochinchinese look upon all Europeans, whether English, French, Spanish, or Dutch, as one and the same race of people. I heard remarks made afterwards by several of the natives to the effect that, if European missionaries had no care for their destitute countrymen, how could they expect the Cochinchinese to have any, since the missionaries had told them, that they should follow their example in every respect."

Finally, it is fair to quote in the author's behalf, "that it is out of respect to them" (the English captains who welcomed him so heartily out of his captivity), "and at their request, that I have put the narrative of my travels in Cochinchina in print; it being too long to relate otherwise." Let us hope those jolly mariners will be thankful for the course taken, and that they will not partake of the feeling which Dr. Johnson had for Isaac Reed:—"Sir," said the Doctor, to a friend, "I never did the man any harm, yet he would read his tragedy to me!"

The Great Sahara: Wanderings South of the Atlas Mountains. By H. B. Tristram, M.A. With Maps and Illustrations. (Murray.)

Geographers will be enabled at length, let us hope, to map the Sahara. Some of them have pretended to do it already, from the Nile to the Atlantic and from Barbary to Negroland; but science knows nothing of the facility which belongs to popular gazetteers. Mr. Tristram, who visited North Africa in search of health, has something new to tell of the desert regions and oases south of the Atlas. His first winter having been spent in Algeria and in excursions among the wildernesses, he resolved to pass a second in the region of sun, sand, and palms; and his volume contains little more than the transcript of a free and familiar diary—the more pleasant on account of its author's insensibility to the temptations of travellers' rhetoric. He describes the country and the people as he saw them, and there is considerable novelty in his sketches. To the French the North Sahara Highlands are well known, but, as Mr. Tristram remarks of the country of the Beni M'zab, and the districts south of it, no detailed reports have been published in any European language. Not that the mystery of the region is peculiarly terrible or likely to endure, for the French columns are working their way through the interior, and conquest threatens to open a path through the M'zab, Wareglia, Touat, and the Touareg to Timbuctoo, thus uniting French Algeria with French Senegambia. It may be doubted, however, whether France will consent to spare the sum of human life and the amount of treasure which must melt away if these expeditions in chase of a fruitless and flying horizon be persisted in.

Voyage, first impressions of Algeria, general notes on the colony, and early ideas of the African fortitude may be left unnoticed. Mr. Tristram's object was to penetrate the Desert. His preliminary journeys were over trodden ground; but he is soon among pastures new on the Northward Slopes—a dweller in tents, bivouacking among the cork-trees of the Atlas, though not yet beyond the range of French military outposts. Beyond El Aghouat the French triumphal road extends, and Imperial pennons gleam on the yellow fringe of the Sahara. France, like Russia, yearns for vistas of territory, even in Plains of No Promise whatever and in the Valleys of the Shadow of Death. Is it that she too, like England in Borneo, must finally be disrespectful to the Equator? Mr. Tristram pursued his way past the Five Mountains of Salt, authentically noted by Herodotus, away by the purple-pink rocks of Hadyfa, over traces of Roman architecture, to the Oasis of Laghouat, just below the Great Range, whence the caravan-routes diverge in the one direction to Timbuctoo, and in the other to Bornu. He is as yet only on the skirts of the wilderness; to the north and west spread the waterless, treeless, lifeless wilds. The golden eagle and the black kite circle overhead, the gazelle glances swiftly across the path. There is a grave here and there, where an explorer has died of thirst. Far off the ostrich, with his mighty strides, almost realizes the fable of the seven-leagued boots;—and yet, though called rainless, this desert is not without rain; and, glittering amid the monotony, appears an oasis and a town:—

"The first glimpse of Berryan is almost startling. On each side of the ravine up which we rode was an empty watercourse, built up of unmortared stone, and showing that the constructors had contemplated the possibility of rain even here. On turning the shoulder of a hill to our left, up started a palm-grove straight before us, fenced with dry

stone walls, which were protected by prickly shrubs at the top. The glaring white cliffs on either side, and the deep green feathery foliage of the palm, combined to render the scene more like the background of a stage than the palm-garden of sober cultivation. We turned the corner of the plantation, and descended into a narrow lane. On the left the date-palms were in full luxuriance, on the right was the sterile mountain range, till, stern nature yielding to patient toil, the groves skirted the road on either side."

Let not Berryan be reflected upon contemptuously. It hath a parliament and a high court of justice, both seated upon the climax of dignity—which is more than can be said of every senate and tribunal in the Old and New Worlds. There, too, the traveller may roost plum dove, or take lessons in the formation of artificial soil; and there may he spread sail on the ship of the desert for the City of Ghardaïa, a towered, gated, eminent city, with markets and caravansaries, and a "political system." In fact, we here attain to a notion of government in the Sahara:—

"The Republic of the Seven Cities of the M'zab is governed by a djemmaa elected by the separate states, and presided over by the Sheik Baba, or religious chief of Ghardaïa. Besides this, each city has its own parliament for the settlement of its domestic affairs, and Ghardaïa has two kadiis, one for each portion of the city—our host being the senior, and, as such, presiding over the municipal djemmaa, consisting of twelve members, elected annually by the votes of all householders, but virtually chosen for life, as no one is ever ejected at the election, excepting for flagrant misconduct or breach of the religious peculiarities of the nation. On all important occasions the Sheik Baba presides, but ordinarily he delegates the chair to the senior kadi. The djemmaa meets every Wednesday, or rather a committee of three members and the president, for the despatch of such business as comes before an English petty sessions and parish vestry. The members serve in turn on these committees; and every month the whole body assembles for the hearing of appeals and other weighty matters. None of the officials are paid, excepting the negro servant who delivers summonses and waits upon strangers, keeping the key of the guest-house. The kadiis alone have houses found for them by the state."

Ghardaïa is the resort of caravans from Tunis, Fez, Algeria, Morocco, Soudan and Timbuctoo, bearers of dates, barley, wool, cotton, indigo, leather, gold, gold-dust and ivory, all very African in their names and natures; and at Ghardaïa, moreover, neat little slaves may be purchased. In the neighbourhood, too, are butts erected for the practice of the Sahara Rifle Volunteers. We have been imitating Africa after all:—

"Every fortnight one hundred of the citizens are summoned to practise ball-firing for three hours, in virtue of their dignity as the militia of the confederacy. The target is the face of a rock, which, by the practice of centuries, has actually been hollowed into a cave of twelve feet deep. This presents the convenience of enabling them easily to re-collect the whole of the expended lead."

Why, asked the M'zab, do the English submit to be governed by a woman? Why, again, did she not marry an Englishman, "as if there was no Englishman fit to be the father of kings"? Mr. Tristram was puzzled, and passed on, with a few general remarks concerning this little-known people:—

"Well may we be sorry to leave the M'zab. They are a mild, gentle race, evidently wholly distinct from the Arabs, with nothing of Ishmael in their face, habits, or language. They are more like the Jews, yet very different from them in contour and in many peculiar traits—living on fruits, fruit-buyers and sellers; loving quiet, disliking Bedouin wildness; unimpassioned, calculating, money-loving, shrewd and careful. They have the reputation of being an honest race, and so

they are, yet they prudently keep to the maxim, 'Safe bind, safe find.' No man ever goes abroad without his ponderous polished key, or a brace of them, in his hand; or in default of iron he uses a yard of wood. They have the reputation, well merited, of being a hospitable race, but prudently know the limits of hospitality, and the quality of the kouskous deteriorates in due time. They have the reputation of being rigid in their observances. Coffee and tobacco are against their creed; yet they never refuse coffee from a stranger, nor do they decline to smoke when they like tobacco and are unseen by their inferiors. They hate warfare, and never carry arms at home. They delight in music. At Ghardaïa pipe and tom-tom used to alternate with the zickars of the sacred city of Mellika and the echoes of the drums from the neighbouring heights of Boumouna; but at Guerrara, from tower and garden, cemetery and palm-groves, the din of the tom-toms was incessant, midday to midnight, midnight to noon again. In many points they are like the Scotch,—in their love of country and their readiness to 'wander' from it; in their clanship abroad and their promptness to help their countrymen; wedded to their own form of Mohammedanism, and anathematizing all others. They are the very Venetians as well as the Swiss of North Africa, travelling everywhere, penetrating from Timbuctoo to Asia Minor, serving in all sorts of capacities, connected with every caravan in Africa on the highway from its central and unknown regions to Morocco, Tunis, Algiers, and Egypt; possessing vast herds of camels, which are let out everywhere; with a free and republican form of government, highly artificial, but coloured in some respects by a theocracy; the young men nearly all abroad, but invariably returning with a competency in their old age to their poor and barren, yet cherished country. They are reserved and cold, but integrity characterizes their commerce, truthfulness their conversation, and morality their domestic life. In fact, as a French officer, who was expatiating on the contrast between them and the Arabs, once exclaimed to me, 'They are the very Protestants of Mohammedanism.'

He is now in the Stony Desert, amid relentless rocks and restless sands,—no birds, no flowers, no green chaplets hanging round the brink of the welcome well. But there is an oasis, and in it the city of Wareglia—not a place of huts or tents, but a memorial of ancient civilization:—

"Our camp was about two miles to the south of the city, which had a triple circuit of crumbling walls; the outer enclosing a wide open space, where cattle could be driven in, caravans arranged, and camels loaded and unloaded. This we entered by a narrow gateway. The middle walls were built of sun-dried bricks much dilapidated. The innmost had a large fosse all round, edged with tamarisks, and now containing a scant supply of salt-water. The whole was completely enveloped in the forest of palms. The city was accessible by five gates, one of which was now closed, a small flat bridge being thrown over the fosse for each. On each gateway, and over all the doors of the houses, were Arabic inscriptions, and portions of bright-coloured pottery let into the wall, like coarse Dutch tiles. We rode by a causeway all round the ditch, and entered the city by the last gate. The arch here was Saracen, and the style of building very distinct from any we had yet seen. There were three large mosques, with lofty square towers slightly tapering, and surmounted by a cupola for the muezzin. The streets were frequently merely low-arched passages, with mastabas, or stone platforms, lining each side, and we had to stoop to our horses' backs as we rode through these archways."

Not that all this is untrodden or even unfrequented ground. We are scarcely yet so far as the familiar walls of Ghadames. But Mr. Tristram struck into by-paths and saw what had not been seen from the highway. The French columns, however, were more than keeping pace with him, and devastating the land like locusts. Ages of barbarism, too, had done their worst:—

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Real motion finding the same perpetuating thing endeav. We the p box th is, so mull,

"One description suffices for all the Wed R' thir cities. First, a salt lake, very shallow, a labyrinth of mud-walls, palm-trees, and enclosures. Then a broad ditch, with filthy stagnant water, which surrounds and defends the city, whose nakedness is only partially hidden by a honeycombed mud-wall. Above and through this wall appears a chaos of edifices of sun-dried brick, ragged and dusty, pitched without design or order, crumbling in decay—much as though the city had descended from a sand-cloud and been sadly battered by the fall. A tall, square mosque-tower alone relieves the monotony, and a village is usually sprinkled over some sand-banks outside the walls."

Mr. Tristram did not penetrate far into the wilderness; his claim as a traveller consists in having visited places which are colloquially described as "out-of-the-way." The chief novelty of his volume is contained in its descriptions of the Beni M'zab and the regions they inhabit; but even when sketching from familiar points of view Mr. Tristram is entertaining, for he never tires the reader's patience, and often rewards it.

Perpetuum Mobile; or, Search for Self-Motive Power, during the Seventeenth, Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. With an Introductory Essay. By Henry Dircks, C.E. (Spon.)

The perpetual motion is, we suppose, so much of a by-word that Mr. Dircks will not introduce it into the title. Not that he is the advocate of the notion, though he seems inclined to hold the balance, and content himself with putting into the two-scales the arguments which have been used on both sides. He has made a large and an amusing collection of trials, and, we may add, a valuable one. So many practicables have before now turned up in the search after the impracticable, that the history of this attempt may be full of hints to those who can take them.

Mr. Dircks's title, however, is not correct. Power is not moved; "self-motive power" is not sought, but self-creating source of motion. He says that scientific men reject perpetual motion because no body can be at the same time heavier and lighter than itself. We might almost suppose he means that men of science will admit of a body heavier than itself, or lighter than itself, but not both at once. We think that they would not admit either, and as soon both at once as either, since either is both; and we do not know that they have given the want of such a possibility as the obstruction to perpetual motion. They may have said that such motion is equivalent to the existence of a body heavier than itself. "But may there not, after all," says Mr. Dircks, "be exceptions to this law, as in some other laws, stated in equally general terms?" We answer, with some amusement, *certainly not*; general as the law is, we do affirm, without any hesitation, that each and every body is as heavy as itself, and not one bit heavier; not the thousand-millionth part of a grain. In his office of finding out something to be said on both sides, Mr. Dircks has invented a second side to a proposition which has but one.

Readers in general hear about the perpetual motion in connexion with squaring the circle, finding the longitude, and a few more things of the same kind. They are not aware that this perpetual motion stands alone, a much grander thing than all the rest put together. We shall endeavour to illustrate this.

We choose for our instrument of comparison the *perpetual snuff-box*: by this we mean a box that makes its own snuff *pro re nata*, that is, so often as a pinch is wanted. Such a thing was once in use in Scotland; and the term *null*, which means *mill*, is still used—a

memory of departed machinery—for nothing but a mere box. This null was a portable grinder, by which a gentleman who duly remembered to replenish the instrument with tobacco from time to time, could grind himself a modicum of snuff whenever he pleased. And for this simple reason—and our subject requires that we should be very fundamental about reasons—that snuff is ground tobacco, at least when quite genuine, so that tobacco, a mill, and a successful attempt at grinding, of necessity produce snuff; and perpetual tobacco yields perpetual snuff, so long as the mill holds together.

As yet we are come to no difficulty, and many perpetual motions have been constructed on the same principle. Motion, meaning properly what mechanical philosophers call *momentum*—is taken from natural sources, and applied to use. The running stream, for instance, is made to give up momentum to a mill-wheel, which momentum is exhausted in grinding corn. But this is not the perpetual motion which the projector aspires after, any more than our illustration is the perpetual snuff-box which—so unfairly does ingenuity distribute its attention—has never been sought after. The true perpetual snuff-box is one which makes its own snuff without any supply of tobacco: the true perpetual motion is one which does work without any supply of momentum. We want a wheel which shall go round, but which shall always have one side heavier than the other: say the left side, so that, somehow or other, the additional weight shall always be on the left side, though that which is now left is soon to be right. This is the modest attempt on which much mechanical ingenuity has been spent. We do not wish to prophesy, nor to predicate possibility or impossibility: but, possible or impossible, the perpetual motion and the perpetual snuff-box stand on one and the same footing. How comes it, then, that so many have tried to create power out of nothing, while no one has tried to create snuff out of nothing? This we shall also try to illustrate.

Those things which go by the name of *thin* are usually those which have sensible qualities: and most commonly those which address themselves to two senses, sight and touch. Thus, an iron wheel is a *thing* to all: but sound is not a *thing* to many. When an additional quality or accident is added to matter, we are apt to consider it as a new thing, and the whole as different from what it was, only when the new quality has visibility, tangibility and tolerable duration. Thus, when the iron wheel is painted, we learn to distinguish it from the unpainted wheel, and we never for a moment suppose that the paint could come without supply of matter and workmanship from without. A person who should busy himself at inventing a self-painting wheel, which should renew the coat of paint from time to time, for ever, would be considered as below insanity. Let those who would so consider him be right or wrong: all we have now to do is to notice that the study of mechanics, be it mathematical or be it experimental, tends to bring the projector of a self-generating power to the same level, and into the same class, with the projector of a self-supplying snuff-box, or a self-painting wheel.

Study of phenomena, and also study of the laws—as they are called—which regulate them, equally tend to make the student clear that a resting wheel and a rolling wheel have a difference which makes them things as different as a painted wheel and an unpainted wheel. Both come from without, paint and motion: both wear out: both, in wearing out, communicate themselves—the paint to the air

or the ground, and the motion to the air or the earth.

Not to be cognizant of the fact, that motion or momentum is a distinct addition to matter is to be a dormant candidate for the honours of the perpetual motion. We can imagine that many persons with whom our assertion has its difficulty might be much benefited by reading the collection of trials before us with this same assertion in their heads, as a thing to be tested. Mr. Dircks himself has taken no pains to separate the attempts to draw perpetual motion from without and the attempts to create it from within. So much the better for the reader whom we are now supposing.

Songs of the Covenant Times. By an Ayrshire Minister. (Edinburgh, Nimmo; London, Simpkin, Marshall & Co.)

The more dramatic features of the Covenant Times have been pretty nearly exhausted by writers of fiction; but, although some of our good poets have found in the Covenanters an occasional theme, the poetry of those times has yet to be written. Those who have attempted to write it, however honest they have been in purpose, have not been the most cool-headed of authors. By either bemoaning the martyrs in rhythmical invective or defending the King in language as unreasonable, they have managed to invest their books with the atmosphere of polemics. The subject is an excellent one, rich in stirring associations; but even the simple prose of it is not easily grasped by intolerant writers. Perhaps the best way for a good poet to look at it would be to examine it as a whole, as part of the principle of religious liberty and self-defence,—to paint it nobly by eschewing minute descriptions of suffering individuals,—and to separate it wholly from the comments of modern Scotch and English historians and theologians. But one is apt to be tempted out of his course by the popular relish for party-ballads.

The book before us is distinguished by good sense, much moderation and some poetry; and it recommends itself to notice as much by the fair feeling as by the ability it certainly displays. It deals with the subject after the old fashion, seeking to immortalize the individual martyrs, and even bemoaning those whose sanguinary fate is at best doubtful. While evidently written from the sectarian point of view we have condemned as open to objection, it lacks the rude fire and rugged fervour essential to sectarian poetry—which, to be readable at all, must be energetic, pungent and thorough. The Ayrshire Minister is too familiar with modern English thought, too careful and too elegant, to produce terse and nervous polemical verses. Yet one might be tempted to modify this opinion after a perusal of some of his lyrical ballads. We subjoin an extract from 'The Black Saturday,'—a ballad founded on the story of the memorable 4th of August, 1621, when, just as the Articles of Perth were receiving the sanction of Parliament, that tempest which the Scotch regarded as a supernatural protest broke over a great part of Scotland. A shepherd-boy has come in from the storm, and is describing to his family his experiences of it when out on the hills:—

"A fire-clad sits on the heigh hill-tap,
And hisses 'mid hall and sleet.

The muirfowl coured 'neath the heather-cow,
At the side o' the corbie-craw;
And they feard na him, and he feard na me,
And as dread possest us a'!

And the fire hung red frae my bonnet-rim,
And flichtered amang my hair;
And I thocht w' myself, as a prayer I said,
We never suld meet since mair.

And burns ran wild and roarin' rude,
Where burns ne'er wont to be;
And hadna a gude God led my steps
Ye never had looked on me!"

"And, mither, when up in the sprety cleuch,
A-kylin' the winter hay,
The mirkness fell down sae thick, I thocht
My sight had stown awa.

And a laroc that sang i' the lift at morn,
Cam sklenin' down wi' the rain,
And I've keepit the wee thing in my breast
To shelter its heart frae pain!"

"Tis a day o' wrath and strife, my bairns,
A day o' storm and mirk;
For the king's black bands o' prelacy
Are conspirin' against the kirk.

O, sit ye down, my children baith,
The thunder is wearin' caulin';
And Willie shall read the blessed bulk,
And Mary shall sing the psalm."

The reason that the Ayrshire Minister does not always write so well as this, is apparent in the spirit of his Historical Introduction,—a paper which, coming from so native a source, is remarkable for liberality and moderation. It forms a really good account of the more local Scotch Reformers, from Adam Reid to Alexander Peden, of Glenluce. The following passage contains a truth which is not distorted by the context:

"Whatever may be the comparative merits of the Presbyterian and Episcopal forms of church government, it is certain the former was clearly the choice of the Scottish nation. If Presbyterianism is to be tested by the Word of God, it has little to fear from any arguments to be drawn from the highest authority in favour of the latter mode. But let the question of comparative merit be argued by others. The fact here insisted on is, that the Scottish people had all along been devoted to the government vested in the mixed courts of the Church, well known to be distinctive of Presbyterianism. The people of Scotland never chose Episcopacy. It was never, in early times, the choice of even a moiety of the aristocracy and gentry of the land. That the civil government, either when looking to a union with England, or after the union of the countries might be said, in effect, to be consummated by the accession of James the Sixth of Scotland to the English throne, should have desired uniformity in church government and discipline to prevail over the two kingdoms, was perhaps but natural. That it should have been thought that Scotland, as being the smaller kingdom, should yield to the precedence of the larger, and consent to assimilate her institutions to those of her more powerful neighbour, was a consideration likely to have no small influence with the statesmen of the times. And, further, that there should have been some, both among the clergy and laity of Scotland—to use the ordinary terms of distinction—who, from various motives and peculiarities, were willing that the Kirk should be 'settled and perfected,' according to the government and polity of the English Church, was a very probable contingency. But there never was aught approaching an equal number of the clergy or laity of the Church of Scotland who could be induced to view that settlement of ecclesiastical affairs with anything but the profoundest dislike. This fact, which is uncontested, must be taken into account in forming a just estimate of the stand made by the Covenanters of subsequent times."

On the whole, we may recommend this book to the reader. He will find in the verse some fine thoughts and noble feelings, and in the prose many of those truths which even English Churchmen are not tardy to recognize. Those who are locally interested in the subject may detect in the Ayrshire Minister a mild exponent of their own enthusiasm; but it seems to us that he does not cut his views too much after the fashion of his cloth.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Shakespere: a Critical Biography and an Estimate of the Facts, Fancies, Forgeries, and Fabrications, regarding his Life and Works, which have appeared in Remote and Recent Literature. By Samuel Neil. (Houlston & Wright.)—Mr. Samuel

Neil, in his Preface, makes confession, and says, "The present *opusculum* aims at supplying a concise synopsis of the known facts of Shakespere's life, arranged—for the first time, we believe, in literature—in strictly chronological order." In his Introduction Mr. Neil further informs us, that he has undertaken to re-construct old facts on a method that may lead his readers to "feel the human in Shakespere's character," and no longer to be perplexed by the "spirit-like impalpability of the myriad-minded dramatist." As a compilation of historic data which are the A B C of Shakspearian students, and which none but Shakspearian students care about, the treatise does not merit emphatic condemnation; as an attempt, however, to hold the balance of criticism between Shakspearian disputants it is a droll exhibition of feeble presumption. Indeed, Mr. Neil is one of those tedious companions who listen with sluggish stolidity to a brilliant conversation, and then, when the matter of debate has been put aside as settled, persist in boring the speakers and auditors of the discussion by a dreamy statement of what each talker has said and each listener heard.

Travels in England: a Ramble with City and Town Missionaries. By John Shaw, M.D. (Johnson).—In this ill-written, garrulous volume, the reader may find, unredeemed by any accompanying merit, all the pernicious qualities of a school of literature which (while it arrogates to itself a monopoly of religious sentiment, and addresses itself to sectarian enthusiasts who would deem it sin to read 'Oliver Twist,') is both vicious, and titillating. Dr. Shaw travels about England, but wherever he goes he searches for only one class of objects—the disfigurements of our social system. Set down in a magnificent town, he forthwith proceeds to inquire where the drunkards mostly congregate, in what street the wife-beaters are found in greatest numbers, what proportion of the juvenile community are addicted to blasphemy and theft, in what quarter the sewers are most offensive. The same spirit animates him in the tranquil lanes of a rural district. If, as he walks beneath the green canopy of a rustling avenue, he sees a little child playing on the verdant sward, he snatches it up, scares it into obstinate silence with a torrent of inquiries as to where it attends Divine Service, whether it knows the meaning of "salvation," and then, finding the terror-stricken infant powerless to reply, walks away with a cheerful conviction that his young friend is in a dark state. Distasteful everywhere, Dr. Shaw's book is in some parts unfit for the family table. The doctor has spent so much time in gloating over the most hideous forms of moral depravity, that he is no longer able to realize the effects of his disgusting disclosures on the pure and simple. Those who delight in the details of police reports and the revelations of the Old Bailey will find ample material for morbid excitement in 'Travels in England.'

The Busy Hives around us: a Variety of Trips and Visits to the Mine, the Workshop and the Factory. (Hogg & Sons.)—This is an honestly made and interesting book: to be recommended as wholesome reading for boys or men,—for those who labour, or those who profit by the fruits of labour,—conceived in a healthy spirit,—executed with care. If here and there be evident too close an attempt to imitate the style of the "Uncommon Traveller," it does not go beyond an unconscious tribute to the vivacity, truth and minuteness of our modern master-describer. The subjects are "a Walk through a London Warehouse,—a Cotton Mill at Heaton Norris,—a Descent into a Coal Mine,—a Glimpse at the Woollen Trade—the Great Printing Office of Her Majesty's Printers,—the Glass Works of Messrs. Apsley & Pellatt,—and a paper on 'The Daily Telegraph.'"—The book, to sum up, is one calculated to excite curiosity, and with it, sympathy: because it is clear of sickly sentimentalities.

Liberty—[*La Liberté*, par Jules Simon]. (Paris, Hachette.)—When a proposition of Euclid concludes with "which was to be demonstrated," a young beginner is sometimes tempted to exclaim "and which could not be otherwise." In the same manner it would not be difficult to imagine that M. Jules Simon's voluminous work on Liberty might elicit a similarly illogical ejaculation. Learn-

ing, eloquence and philosophy are here allied to prove that which, in our English world at least, has long been regarded as too self-evident to need discussion. However, it is in this that the merit of the book consists. It is at once elemental and exhaustive. The author sets out with a proposition, slightly varied from Aristotle, to the effect that the rights of a government can only arise from a social necessity. He then passes through historical commentaries into a disquisition on Domestic Liberty, when, for a time, he seems to lose his way, appearing to think that the subject is to be disposed of in a fervid oration on the happiness of the married state. He is here, we suspect, conscious of writing less for the world than for Frenchmen, especially when he adjures them to quit their evil ways and to marry for love instead of money. But he, at the same time, is champion of parental privileges, and regrets that family councils have not been armed by the law with more extended powers. This part of the argument will scarcely be convincing to English readers. Considering the work as a whole, we may attribute to it a threefold value:—as a constitutional history of France; a somewhat imperfect philosophical treatise on Liberty; and an exposure, not only of the present, but of all recent French governments in respect of their civil and domestic administrative systems. All that M. Jules Simon writes is written well, so that it is almost superfluous to repeat our praise of his singularly lucid and vigorous style.

Our second editions are rather numerous. Of these we may mention, as first, perhaps, in interest, certainly in scholarship and importance, *The Celt, the Roman, and the Saxon*, by T. Wright (Hall, Virtue & Co.), a book reproduced with many valuable additions. After this follow, *New Zealand, Britain of the South*, by C. Hursthouse (Stanford),—Dr. Hassall on *Adulterations Detected* (Longman),—Dr. Anderson on *Regeneration* (Black),—*Les Fleurs du Mal*, par C. Baudelaire (Barthés & Lowell),—Mr. Thomas's Translation from the Italian of Vincenzo Gioberti's *Essay on the Beautiful, &c.; or, Elements of Aesthetic Philosophy* (Simpkin),—Mr. Mills's *Life of a Foxhound* (Longman),—*The Ingoldsby Letters, in Reply to the Bishops in Convocation, and the House of Lords on Lord Ebury's Motion for a Revision of the Liturgy* (Partridge),—Dr. Dewar's *Evidences of Divine Revelation* (Houlston & Wright),—*The Island of Sardinia*: being the *Preface to the Second Edition of "Rambles in Corsica"*, by T. Forester (Longman),—and Miss Sarah Jolly's *Harmony of Education* (Simpkin),—and, by the same Author, *Thoughts on the Vocation and Progression of the Teacher* (Simpkin).—Among our third editions we have a copy of Dr. Doran's *Lives of the Queens of England*, with the addition of a brief memoir of Queen Adelaide (Bentley),—Mr. J. Davenport's *Historical Class-Book* (Reeve),—and Mr. R. Galloway's *Manual of Qualitative Analysis* (Churchill).—Fourth editions of *A Literal Translation of the Vatican Manuscript's Acts of Apostles*, by Herman Heinleiter (Heylin),—and *Scripture and Science not at Variance*, by Archdeacon Pratt (Hatchard), are before us; also a sixth edition of Mr. Hardwick's *Manual of Photographic Chemistry* (Churchill),—an eighth edition of Mr. Fownes's *Manual of Elementary Chemistry* (Churchill),—and an eighteenth edition of *A Word in Season; or, How to Grow Wheat with Profit*, by the Author of 'Lois Weedon Husbandry' (Ridgway).—Mr. Bentley has brought out a new and enlarged impression of *The Bentley Ballads*, containing Choice Ballads, &c., contributed to *Bentley's Miscellany*.—Messrs. Hurst & Blackett have added to their Standard Library *The Laird of Norlaw: a Scottish Story*, by the Author of 'Margaret Maitland'.—Dr. Wardlaw's *Posthumous Works*, edited by his Son, the Rev. S. Wardlaw (Fullarton),—and *The Rights of American Slavery*, by T. W. Hoit (St. Louis, Hoit).—From Messrs. Allen & Co. we have the Rev. H. Christmas's Translation from the German of C. M. von Wieland's *Republic of Fools: being the History of the State and People of Abdera in Thrace*.—From Mr. Bohn, Vol. I. of *The Cotton Manufacture*, by the late Dr. Ure, with a Supplement by P. L. Simmonds.—*Ruth*, by Mrs. Gaskell (Clarke).—Messrs. Burton & Co. have added to their "Cheap

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INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1862.

THE chief of the plans and drawings representing the design made by Capt. Fowke, R.E., for the Great Exhibition next year have been prepared, and from them we may attempt to render some account of the appearance and character of the building which is to contain a whole world of wonders,—some portion of which, moreover, will undoubtedly be permanent and take its place among the great public metropolitan edifices for centuries to come. We must premise that the plans and drawings that we shall proceed to describe are necessarily more or less incomplete, if not imperfect,—absolute details are not yet produced,—therefore our account must be received as preliminary and indicative rather than entirely exact. For instance, we can state the total length of the nave, grand

breadth of the building, altitudes of the leading portions, and general constructional features, but we cannot at present describe the minutiae of ornamentation, or even the final apportionment of the various sections of the building to their several purposes.

The situation will be, as is already pretty well known, to the south of the plot of ground occupied by the Horticultural Society's new gardens at South Kensington. The southern façade of the new building will run along the Cromwell Road, a few hundred feet from the South Kensington Museum,—on the east, also with a front, lies the Exhibition Road,—on the west, Prince Albert's Road,—between this and the Horticultural Society's boundary, a semi-detached portion of the Exhibition building, intended for the department of implements and machinery in motion, will extend. We said semi-detached, because it will extend over an entrance to the gardens by some sort of covered way or bridge,—so that this section is to be kept entirely separate from the main body of the edifice, and the rumbling of cranks and shafts will interfere with no one's contemplation of works of Art, neither will the smell of machine-grease pervade the place as of old. Warned by the experience gained in 1851, at Paris in 1855, the Manchester Art-Treasures of 1857, and the Crystal Palace, the Commissioners resolved that the new building should be formed of more weather-tight materials than iron and glass, at least in those portions devoted to the reception of works of Art. Without some such provision for the safety of pictures there was no chance of getting loans to any extent, more than one mishap having, reasonably enough, disposed owners against incurring risks of the like nature over again. Accordingly, a very large portion of the new construction is to be of brick, the roofs supported on cast-iron pillars, the roof itself of wood, protected by felt and painted. Thus much for the materials, now of the form and architectural character of the edifice.

The longest dimension of the site runs parallel to the Cromwell Road for 1,152 feet, that is from east to west, it should be borne in mind; from north to south the diameter will be 692 feet 6 inches;—these measurements being exclusive of the "annex" devoted to the machinery, the area of which is 872 feet by 200 feet, going directly north and south, at a right angle, therefore, to the main construction. Looking at the southern façade will furnish the most striking view of the whole exterior, which is arranged thus:—The whole stretch of the front proper is nearly on a level from end to end, of the height of about 60 feet; behind this, and overlooking it in some degree, will run the loftier roof of the nave, 100 feet in height; at each end rises an enormous dome, represented octangularly on the plan, 250 feet high and 160 feet in diameter at its base. When it is remembered that the dome of St. Paul's is but 108 in diameter and St. Peter's but 139, some idea of the huge vault it is proposed to rear will be obtained. The form of these domes appears to be octangular, terminating in a pinnacle, and with a reverted curve, like an ogee moulding, for general outline. The exterior aspect of the great façade presents four sections, divided by porches of differing dimensions. In the centre of the grand entrance are three porches of lofty openings under round-headed arches, supported by pilasters, which may probably bear on their surfaces carvings or coloured marbles; this, with its plinths, standards and elevated roof, will give an idea of a triumphal arch,—above is the cornice, at about the same level as that carried entirely along the front,—over this, the frieze, in the centre of which, above the middle porch, a niche with a statue in it, with a boldly-arched and decorated head. A low flight of steps gives ascent to this, the chief porch. To the right and left extends the front,—on each side having eight round-headed window openings, rising to the cornice, their jambs and soffits displaying an ornamental character. At the extremity of this recess of the façade is another portal on either side, with a doorway, one third the height of the building, beneath a round-headed window, reaching to the cornice as before. These entrances at the extremities of the building, on this face are similar; over them, it

must be remembered, rise the stupendous domes, removed to the rear, however, about 350 feet. The architectural details of the transept-fronts do not appear. Over the porches the roof-line of the south front is broken by a sort of mansard over the respective porches.

With this we have completed our survey of the exterior of this building, as far as the means at our disposal will allow. Reverting to the ground plan, we may briefly point out that its general form is that of the letter L, the short limb being that intended for the reception of machinery. At each end of the long limb arise the enormous domes; along the front of this, farthest removed from the short limb, is the façade we have just described; this façade is the front of the space devoted to the pictures, will be built of brick, its walls two feet thick, and, of course, intended to be of a permanent nature. The upper portion only of this will be devoted to Art; the lower galleries, on a level with the road, being appropriated to other objects, amongst which carriages and still machinery will find place. The picture galleries will therefore be 1,200 feet long, just four times as long as the King's Library in the British Museum; down the middle runs a dividing wall, doubling the hanging space, forming two galleries parallel to each other—55 feet wide by 35 feet high. The result will be 4,600 feet of wall space; more than twice that obtained at Manchester in 1857: a space enormous, no doubt, but by no means enough, if all the probable requirements are to be fully met. The plan of lighting is to be from a clerestory range of windows, the roof being solid.

We are now fairly in the interior of the edifice, and may take a stand at either end under the dome, and look down the vast nave, which is in an unbroken line from end to end. As at present designed, there will be under each of these domes a raised platform or dais, elevated a few feet from the floor,—a post of advantage for looking over all the vast range of vistas that open before us. The general character of the design for these interiors is not without a suggestive Gothicism. The height of the nave, which forms the centre, is about 100 feet,—the roof pitched from the centre at a low angle, of wood, covered with felt, as we said before. This roof is to be supported by cast-iron columns; these columns, about midway of their height—which is about the same as the exterior wall—sustain a gallery running entirely round the nave above this, at an equal distance to that at which the first gallery stands above the floor; the columns terminate in an ornamental capital; from this rise gigantic spanners of semi-circular form, which leap over the whole nave from side to side, the space between them and the sloping roof sides being filled by trusses and ties, architecturally disposed,—thrust there exists what may be called a spandrel over each arching semi-circular spanner. The cast-iron columns are banded midway of their height. The splendid picturesque effect gained by this general arrangement may be surmised readily. Great character is given by allowing the timber ribs of the roof to be visible above all. The columns are slightly advanced into the nave, so that a sort of recess is formed by each. Behind each is a second but subordinate shafting, of square form; this will do duty mainly for the support of the galleries, that of the roof going to the columns,—both are of cast-iron. The spanners have cusps upon their edges, are decorated in simple forms, and will be painted of a cheerful colour. The whole is lighted from a clerestory. The true centre of the building will not be found to be at the line drawn from dome to dome, this being shifted to the northward, so that there are to be nine columns or piers, including those of the central nave, on one side, and six on the other,—this will give, of course, a corresponding number of aisles, athwart which our view from the dais at either end extends. Upon this dais, as at present designed is to be placed a fountain with shrubs surrounding it. The extreme ends of the building, seen beyond this and beneath the domes, are open like a vast east window of a church; a huge circular traceried wheel-like light stands in the middle of all, above it a lesser one, on either side the same, and a demi-circle at the level of the

middle disc; below this the space is filled in again with vertical tracery to inclose the centre; the lowest range of tracery resembles a Gothic reredos. On the whole, the aspect of these terminal windows is somewhat Byzantine, from the repetition of circular discs. The effect of the whole cannot fail to be rich, as well as simple and bold.

Having thus described the structure and general character of the building, we may state some further particulars of interest. From the 1st of May to the 15th of October is to be the period of its existence; so it was that of the 1851 gathering. Her Majesty will open, and she will also close the Exhibition, we believe. The amount now subscribed to the Guarantee Fund exceeds 300,000. The decoration of the interior is not yet absolutely decided upon: when this is the case we may state the particulars critically. The ground occupied by the whole building is more than twenty-six acres; that of the 1851 Exhibition being but twenty-three. The space of the flooring will be 1,140,000 feet; nearly 200,000 feet more than its predecessor, without counting nearly 300,000 feet more that will be gained by the appropriation of the wing building to machinery. 180 feet was the greatest height of 1851,—the nave being sixty feet high by seventy-two wide. The forthcoming building will be 260 feet at its greatest height, that of the domes; the nave, 1,200 feet long, 85 wide, and 100 feet high. The first building was 1,800 feet long by 400 wide; the present, as before, 1,200 long and 720 wide; the machinery nearly 1,000 feet long by 220 wide. Messrs. Kelk & Lucas, the contractors, have undertaken the erection at the price of 200,000*l.*, its estimated cost being 300,000*l.*,—the remaining 100,000*l.* being to be paid over to them in case the profits amount to more than 500,000*l.*, as they did in 1851. The risk is not great, but incurring it shows the spirit of the contracting firm. It is notable that the position of the building being in a line of its main axis direct from east to west, and the light being admitted only from the clerestory windows of 25 feet high, and not from the roof perpendicularly upon the objects within, not only will a better light be obtained for their display, but the incessant glare of sunlight, so troublesome in 1851, will be overcome. The columns of the nave are to be 22 feet apart, and of the same height. The chief entrances beneath the domes will be 60 feet high and 50 wide, the side porches 40 feet by 15; those in the Cromwell Road will be 56 feet high by 22 wide. The pictures in the galleries will not be hung at a greater height than 20 feet.

HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY'S NEW GARDENS.

For three days the members of the Horticultural Society—which begins to be very much the same as saying the London public—have been admitted to see these new gardens at South Kensington, and very beautiful they have found them. These Gardens are included within the quadrangle composed by the Kensington Road on the north,—where was originally Gore House, belonging to the Countess of Blessington,—the new Cromwell Road to the south,—Prince Albert's Road on the west,—and, at the east, Exhibition Road. The whole of the space within this quadrilateral is not occupied by the Horticultural Society,—a portion of land on the north being left unoccupied, with a frontage towards the Kensington Road, while on the south, several hundred feet in depth, and the entire width from east to west, with a section at the south-west angle, is devoted to the International Exhibition of 1862. To this the Gardens, with their waters, vast plots of level turfing and innumerable flowers, will be a delightful and appropriate adjunct. The whole space occupied by the Horticultural Society is about 1,200 by 800 feet, the longest measurement being from north to south. In the same direction, the gradient of the land, or its natural slope, is about thirty feet incline, that being the difference between the levels of the Cromwell and the Kensington Roads. This affords an ample fall for the water, and, most conveniently, the introduction of a series of slopes, turfed terraces and grassy banks, which, with the shallow flights of

steps employed at intervals, will add greatly to the variety of the aspect presented by the whole. The soil is a well-drained gravel.

We will introduce the reader as he may enter these Gardens on the 4th of June next, with, we hope, Her Majesty, for that is the day which the Committee, accustomed to do great things in extraordinary circumstances, have announced for the opening. The entrance is to the south-east, from Exhibition Road, within 100 yards of the South Kensington Museum. We pass through the narrow belt of exterior garden, that is to be tastefully laid out for the benefit of the public in general. The front of the entrance-building is as yet but a plain piece of brick-work; but it is to assume architectural proportions and pretensions when the other works are completed. Between piers which are closed by shutters, or may be made open by sinking them completely out of sight, we may go into the vestibule, an elegantly-designed hall, lighted from the roof by a flat skylight, oblong in form, decorated with pilasters and mirrors, and kept very simple in colour and pure in design. Traversing this, we cross a corridor, and, by a flight of steps, come upon the level of the garden itself, at the centre walk of the ante-garden, which occupies the entire width and about three hundred feet of the length of the grounds: to the right and left are to be pedestals with statues, a gravel path thirty feet wide in front, which is, some day, we believe, to have in the centre a large octagonal tank filled with water, wherein are to be placed various Nymphæe and water-plants of the like description; a statue will probably stand in the middle of this, upon a circular pedestal. Here the main central walk, which traverses the grounds from north to south, ascending from one level to the other, is met with. Before going any further, we look round upon the domain thus entered. Without much difficulty, as the works now stand, we can conceive their completed state—the whole boundary of the garden, north, south, east and west, is inclosed by an arcade of considerable height, judiciously varied in its design, so that on the south and east ends runs a highly-beautiful belt of columns, to be glazed in the openings. To the north, much above our level as standing here, is a bold colonnade of Ionic pillars, sweeping its curved ends inwards, so as to inclose the head of the grounds. In the centre of this will arise a conservatory nearly two hundred and fifty feet long. The colonnade will be a covered way, or sheltered promenade, decorated with statues, climbing plants, and, may be, wall-painting, so that the visitors may take exercise under shelter. On the roof is to be a balustraded balcony, some twenty-four feet above the highest level of the grounds, and, consequently, about fifty feet higher than our present post. Hence will be gained a complete view of the grounds, with their gay groups of promenaders and sparkling waters, within convenient hearing of the bands which are to be stationed below, just within the returning horns of the colonnade. This balcony, or upper promenade, is, we believe, when there are sufficient funds, to be carried along the two sides of the garden as well as on the north. Now turning to look at the south arcade, there is visible what we consider the most beautiful, as it is certainly the most novel, section of the architectural part of the design. Between piers, set apart about twenty feet, are openings, in which are introduced round-headed arches, three in each division, of a very elegant order. The arches spring from the heads of slender shaftings, with spiral mouldings in relief running round them; these are doubled, have pretty bands of flowers midway in their height, upon a flat belt, their capitals delicate and graceful to a high degree with similar ornamentation. The lightness and graceful appearance of this arcade, even in its present state, must strike and delight every spectator; but its agreeable disposition and true beauty will hardly be developed until the roof which shall convert its interior face into a corridor, and the glass which is to close it in, have been added. The shaftings, caps and belts for the arcades are moulded in terra-cotta, of several designs, so made that, by fitting one segment to another,

great diversity, the very essence of romantic art, is readily obtained. The result of this experiment will be accepted as a hint by architects in designing windows for modern buildings, such shaftings being durable beyond conception, strong, capable of infinite adaptation, and cheaper, we opine, than the brick-and-stucco mullions which intercept the light of a window-opening without adding to its beauty. They may be used with square or round heads, can be made to fit for sashes or fixed frames, with a discharging arch above, and the tympana, open with glass or closed with brick-work at pleasure. These shaftings alone would give a beautiful architectural character to the cheapest of buildings; they might be glazed of any vitrifiable colour, when they would endure for ever.

The extreme southern side of the grounds it is proposed to leave for the present partly unoccupied, in case it be wanted for the Floral Exhibitions: part of it is, however, to be appropriated to ferns and rock-plants. Belts of evergreen shrubs, trees and statuary are to be disposed around us here; looking northwards on the left is a maze of holly and hornbeam, about a quarter of an acre in extent; surrounded by trees may be an aviary for song-birds, standing upon turf and within a mass of shrubs. The compartment for American plants is on our right, secluded by a belt of evergreens, and surrounded by grass alleys; near the centre walk, and as a companion to the aviary, may stand a pheasantry, 50 feet by 30 feet. Quitting the station beside the basin for Nymphæe, we advance beyond the limits of the ante-garden, marked by a turfed slope to right and left, and ascend by a shallow flight of steps to the garden proper, having before us some splendid deciduous and other trees, which, when time matures them, will be highly picturesque; a circular basin on either hand is to mark the intersection of the next wing pathway, going parallel to that by which we entered, called the south cross-walk of the principal garden. The view obtainable here is to be enhanced by a bridge, which, ascended by steps, traverses the sides of the garden, marked again by banks of turf and beds of flowers,—ramps giving access to higher levels with ease, as well as diversifying the aspect of the whole,—producing light and shade and variety of colour. These turf ramps are disposed in geometrical order over various parts of the garden, and form boundaries for the different terraces.

A further progress along this centre walk will give us another station for looking around, and place us in what may be styled the heart of the garden, which, from its superior level, is preferable to that last quitted. Here the path divides to right and left. Hence we get a notion of the whole, and shall be near enough to examine one of the marked features of the design; this is, the employment of beds of coloured earth, formed by use of powdered stones and other durable substances, which, when nature no longer furnishes flowers, will, as well as may be, add colour to the landscape. Some of these beds have their surfaces inclining inwards towards the centre of the garden, so as to catch the spectator's eye fully, and occupy more space to the sight. To the north is a great rectangular basin, into which pours a cascade 18 feet wide and 11 feet high, from the base of a pedestal to be surmounted by a memorial sculpture of the Great Exhibition of 1851. Immediately to the right and left are to be standard Portugal laurels on the verges, which latter are fifteen inches above the surfaces of the compartments and promenades. An alley of these evergreens will stand on either side of the centre walk, flanked by low ramps, backed over the grass-plats by masses of divers shrubs and taller trees. At the east and west of our station are basins with jets of water, the background to which will be flights of steps ascending to the terraces and corridors. We will now go further on, and stand by the site of the cascade above the principal basin. It will be remembered that the great colonnade, with its horns curving inwards, has been in front of us all this time: in the centre will rise the glittering mass of the conservatory, disposed to an appropriate architectural design, with its balcony on the roof, to be filled with gay

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crowds, the dark masses of the deodars ever present. As we look from this new station, four canals, supplied by cascades,—whose course is traversed by the pathway in which stand the basins with jets and the flights of steps whereby we reach the level of the side terraces, are discernible, for we are now above them and look over the ramps of earth supporting the paths that surround them and the stairways giving access from one grade to another. Each of these canals is about one hundred and eighty feet long and twenty-five wide; they are four in number, two on each side, reaching from our present standing-point to the pathway at whose intersection with the centre walk we stood with the circular basins on either hand,—the south cross-walk of the principal garden. One hundred and eighty feet from the pedestal of the sculpture which it is proposed to place above the great central cascade, is the last flight of steps, which brings us to a level with the band platforms and only just below the conservatory; we are now inclosed by the great colonnade, whose horns advance with a grand sweep two hundred and fifty feet, spanning seven hundred feet. From the lowest level of the steps just ascended goes to either side a long ramp of turf, encircling half the band houses and platforms, so that large accommodation for auditors is provided. From the highest level the path runs in front of the conservatory, sweeps round the ramps last mentioned, and by a brief ascent brings us to the colonnade itself,—standing under or upon the roof of which we can see the whole domain, with its many levels, flights of steps, belts of trees, evergreens and dwarf shrubs, its embroidered beds, canals of running water and many-shaped basins, its jets, cascades, the multitudinous-hued flowers, large spaces of grass and ramps in long lines from side to side, with their curving faces here and there as they stretch beneath us; the rich diversity of greens from the plats and shrubs, statues, band houses and dark deodars, all inclosed with the diverse corridors to the east, south and west. Beyond the south side will be the Exhibition building. With great judgment, the employment of fountains has been restricted to two simple and lofty streams, which under shelter of the corridors and colonnade can play at all times and in all winds. Hence it will be seen that the error of the Crystal Palace decorators has been avoided. We have had occasion to speak of many flights of steps; but it will be seen that these are in easy gradients, from the fact that the total ascent, thirty feet, is overcome by no less than seven shallow flights.

Such, we hope, will be nearly the state of the gardens on the 4th of June; but the long-continued wet and frost lead us to doubt if the gardens can be quite finished by that day.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

Pompeii, March, 1861.

A trip to Pompeii! A grand excavation! These words sound of other years; for a long and weary time has passed since crowds hurried down to take their pleasure in the dwelling of Diomedes and his neighbours. A happy change has, however, come over everything in Southern Italy; and, instead of merely vegetating, men now open their lungs and breathe freely, and think and talk, and enjoy life to the utmost. Thank God! and the Bourbons, too, who have now left us, and relieved the country from their brutal oppression. Let me at starting present Signor Fiorelli, the actual and able Director of the Excavations of Southern Italy, who is a son of the Revolution. In 1848, he made himself conspicuous and obnoxious by his efforts to raise the artistic character of his country, and arrange the Museum on a better system. Such innovations were remembered as crimes, and Fiorelli for twelve years has been saved from persecution and a prison only by the late Count of Syracuse, who, amongst many other kind deeds, made him his secretary, and accorded him his protection. In this interval, Fiorelli has given to the world several valuable works in illustration of the ruins of Cumæ and Pompeii—more he could never venture on, for learning and genius have for many a year been under the surveillance of the policeman. A change, however, has come, I repeat, and Fiorelli

has obtained his deserts from a liberal government in having been appointed to the Professorship of Antiquities in the University, and the directory of all the excavations of these provinces. So much I have thought necessary in introducing to public notice my friend, Signor Fiorelli, the new Director of the Excavations of Pompeii. A kind offer on his part to give me a special excavation—for we have had artistic and political relations this many a year—afforded me the opportunity of gathering together a crowd of friends; and so here we are in the Forum, a host of gallant naval officers, and many other *dilettante* antiquaries from the north, south, east and west.

The general aspect of the place is, of course, little changed. There is Diomede Hotel at the entrance, as extortione a "Locanda" as any in the South of Italy; and, for the honour of the dead, I would suggest that the name be changed, so long as the present proprietor hangs out his sign. But we have passed by him for the present, and are wending our way to the new excavations. What a scene of activity it is which lies before us! I remember when of late years nothing was to be seen but, at the utmost, two or three men lazily digging amidst the walls, and a soldier, who asked for a *bottiglia*, and half-a-dozen ragged boys, who polished a mosaic or opened a door, which they had but the minute before shut, and then demanded their *bottiglia*; now, on the contrary, 220 men, boys and girls were regularly at work,—and on some system, too, for an overseer with a whip stood by, which I did not think constitutional, and the hours of work and repose were marked by the sound of a trumpet. At the beginning of our golden era, 400 persons were employed; but all the upper soil being removed from the present scene of operation, the number has been reduced to 220, to avoid crowding and embarrassment in the interiors of the houses. The site on which the excavations are now carried on is in the Strada Mercati, and exactly opposite the new Thermae. A little island of houses, perhaps four or five, has been selected, and from the summit of these the soil has been removed, and so downward to within about four feet of the pavement. In this way, the frescoes on the walls are laid open to view in the first place, thoroughly examined and polished, and then at last the lower soil is removed. There are two reasons for such an arrangement. In the first place, this lower stratum acts as a protection to all the valuables which have been forced down to the ground by the heavy weight above; and, secondly, a series of "preparations" are ready with which to gratify the curiosity of those whom it delighted the Director to honour. "We reserve these for distinguished families," said one of the inspectors to me; and I took the flattering unction to my soul that I was one of the class, for every individual is called a family in Southern Italy, on what principle I cannot exactly say, and stood higher in my shoes than I had done for many a day. Imagine us, then, all seated round a room, or what was once a room, whilst the workmen are advancing towards us, digging up and throwing aside the pumice-stones and ashes which eighteen hundred years ago had been hurled down on the devoted city. Every neck is stretched over, and every eye is intent on the operation. Shining pieces of lava are taken for ear-rings, or armlets, or some other valuable object; every one imagines that the work is carried on, as it were, in a goldsmith's shop, or that that mass of rubbish is at least gold-dust. If you have ever been present at an excavation you will realize all this! At last, there is turned up, what? a part of the lower jaw of an old man, so said two medical men who were present; and now, said Fiorelli, we shall find the remains of the body, and perhaps some precious objects near at hand. So to work the men went with renewed ardour; but nothing was found except three rusty nails with some charred wood attached. What had become of the remains of the old gentleman?—that was a puzzle,—and of his valuables? Well, I had a theory of my own, and it was this, that if ancestral blood and habits were similar to those of the present inhabitants of the country, his servants had robbed him, and left the poor old gentleman to die amongst the ashes. Some pretty bits of fresco

and capitals we found, and this was all that repaid the labours and the expectations of the day, for an excavation is proverbially uncertain. It was not until late in the morning that we observed in the wall a round hole, just large enough to admit the body of a man, and then the mystery was solved. Here had entered some Roman or medieval thief,—perhaps he might have been one of the household, who had returned after the disaster and grubbed amongst the ruins for the riches which he knew to be buried there. There are many such round holes in Pompeii, and, as a rule, nothing is ever found in those places. Oh, those horrid grave-diggers, what disappointment they occasioned us! As the work now became rather slow, we dispersed about and made our observations. The house in which we were is a large one, and the room which we were leaving was the reception-room. The pillars and pilasters and capitals, beautifully wrought, are all of that highly polished white stucco so well known here,—so smooth and polished that you might almost see your face in them. In the next compartment is Signor Abbate hard at work,—the gentleman to whom we are indebted for the Pompeii ruins in the Crystal Palace. He is laying a preparation of wax and oil on a very beautiful and well-preserved fresco. "At last, we have discovered," he said, "something which will preserve these paintings from atmospherical influences. In bygone years silex was tried, but it was ineffectual, and was attended with bad results. Then we tried oil of turpentine and wax, and afterwards oil of lavender with wax,—but the horrid sal ammoniac always oozed out, and many a valuable fresco was ruined; now we have succeeded, for wax and oil of benzoin—which, by-the-by, do not require the application of heat—have been proved, by many experiments, to be just the composition which we wanted." And then he laid his brush on a landscape, and out came the figures and scenery as if by magic. In the next compartment was another person working at taking off all that crust of ages which completely concealed colour and objects. What a delicate and tedious task! A number of iron and ivory scalpels and brushes and bottles of mixture lay on the walls, and all were to be used to clean even an inch of the surface. A scrape too hard would destroy the beauty of an entire fresco; and when this cleansing has taken place, Signor Abbate steps in and applies his composition. Whether it will stand the test of time, I think is yet to be proved, though it must be confessed that the actual results are wonderful. The subject of a fresco which had been cleaned and polished was "Europa being carried off by the Bull," and there is a novelty in the arrangement: Europa is reclining on the side of the bull, and, throwing back her arms, holds him by the horns, whilst round the same are thrown cords which are held by an amorino, who is flying behind. Leaving this house, we pass by the Capo Lavoro, of which that poor old gentleman whose jaw we found might justly have been proud. It represented Apollo and Daphne, who is being treated with some violence by the god, whilst wicked imp of an amorino behind is pulling aside the veil which conceals the beauty of the virgin. "Quanto è bella!" said an artist who was copying it;—and here I may state, that with a liberality hitherto unknown, any one may sketch or photograph now; no wearisome applications need be made to the Steward of the Household for permission, and no reservations are made in favour of a few whose only occupation it was to chant the praises of the Bourbons. The days are gone when Cavaliere this or Cavaliere that monopolized the privilege and paid for it by pernicious eulogies of King Bomba in Latin. The next house is still larger than the one where we have remained so long, and it has many remarkable features to be noted. The walls are nearly falling, and are propped up by poles planted in the ground; a hundred rivets have just been fixed in the plaster to prevent its falling off; in a side room sheets or plates of the upper part of the frescoed plaster had fallen down and over the lower portion of the wall, and had there become fixed. "This house has been terribly shattered," observed Fiorelli; "it must have been shaken by the earthquake which preceded the eruption, and has suffered more than the

other houses, inasmuch as it was very old. Look at the large massive stones of which it was built, indicating that it belonged to the ancient Pompeii." In the centre of this house there is a Hermes, well preserved, but of no artistic value. The bordering of the walls in fresco is, however, most graceful and fresh; it consists of leaves intermixed with grapes, and birds of a beautiful colour and form are flying round them. No very precious objects have yet been discovered,—nothing, in fact, but a few bronzes, kitchen utensils, a helmet, and a cuirass; but the works have been only recommenced two months, and in that time as much has been done as in past times would have been done in a year. The house which I visited had been uncovered just fifteen days, and, in continuation, others were being uncovered. Many years of work, however, lie before us; and many generations will visit Pompeii to witness excavations. At present, only a third of the city has been brought to light, and it has taken 120 years to effect this; the operations, however, will now be carried on with much more spirit. On leaving this part of the city, I saw preparations being made for laying down a railway, by which to carry off the supererupted soil to a place far beyond the amphitheatre. A railway through Pompeii! What would Diomedes say? The rails were lying there, and the wagons, too, and the work would be commenced on the following day. But the shrill whistle of the signal-man announces that the train is coming up from Vietri, and it will require a run to be in time. Not all the doubtful luxuries of the Hotel Diomedes could tempt me to make a day of it, and a word in the ear of all travellers:—I would recommend you to take a sandwich and a flask of wine, and thus be independent of the extortions of the landlord.

A.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

Sir W. Page Wood has decided the construction to be put on the will, and on the codicils to the will, of the late Lady Morgan. Part of the Vice Chancellor's decision affects the unpublished papers of the deceased author. Our readers are aware that, by Lady Morgan's will, Mr. Hepworth Dixon was left her literary executor, with full powers to publish any or all of her Ladyship's journals and correspondence. A question, however, arose as to whether the bequest conveyed to Mr. Dixon the sole and absolute property in these journals and correspondence, or only the power of publication. Sir W. Page Wood has decided that Mr. Dixon's property in the papers is sole and absolute, and the masses of her ladyship's correspondence with eminent persons, together with all her diaries and note-books, have been delivered over to that gentleman. Such portions of her Autobiography as Lady Morgan left nearly ready for the press may now be given to the world.

This evening, Saturday, the first reception of the President of the Royal Society will take place.

Miss Susan Durant has received a commission to execute one of the poetical marbles for the Mansion House—being, so far as we recollect, the first English lady who has ever obtained a compliment of this particular kind.

The following explanations by Mr. Murray need no introduction:—

"50a, Albemarle Street, March 12, 1861.
It is surely by some oversight that the writer of the otherwise favourable notice of 'Handbook of Cathedrals,' in the last *Athenæum*, has stated that 'the illustrations are seldom new.' Now, I beg to assure you that three-fifths of them are new, made expressly for this work, chiefly from sketches or photographs. These include all the larger cuts; and the cost of illustrations alone, in these two volumes, amounts to near 1,000. I might have been content with these original plates, but I thought it a pity not to avail myself also of those from 'Parker's Glossary,' which are valuable for illustrating details.—I am, &c.,

JOHN MURRAY."

Mr. R. H. Major, of the British Museum, has made an interesting discovery as to Australia. In the preface to his 'Early Voyages to Terra Australis' he had traced the early voyages down to

1806, when he found a Dutch mariner touching on that unknown land; and it has been generally supposed by geographers that the Dutch claim of discovery would stand good in all future time. But Mr. Major has now found in the British Museum a document (in the shape of a manuscript *Mappe-monde*) which transfers the honour from Holland to Portugal, giving to the latter country an advantage of five years in priority. Thus, the earliest authenticated discovery of Australia is now known to have been made in the year 1601, by a Portuguese named Manoel Godinho di Eredia, or Heredia.

Sir Charles Fellows bequeathed to the British Museum the greatest treasure he possessed,—Milton's watch,—on the special condition that it should always be kept under glass and exposed to public view. This stipulation brings to our mind a proposal that was made some time ago, to the effect that the various and numerous treasures literally hidden away in the British Museum should be displayed to the public. To some extent this has been done, and many a treasure now sees the light which for years was completely hidden or only produced as a special treat for "distinguished visitors." An example may be pointed out in the blank sheet of paper containing Charles the Second's signature only, sent to Cromwell, we believe, in order that conditions for the sparing of his father's life might be inserted. Again, there is the Shakespeare autograph. But many things are not seen by the public,—as the Cellini Cup, Albert Dürer's carving in Turkey stone of the Nativity, certain curious jewels, which are either not shown or dispersed, absurdly enough, amongst the minerals. There is Dr. Dee's "show-stone," for one article, of slight mineralogical interest, but a real "curiosity," of more vital interest to the common order of visitors, or, indeed, any one but special students, than the best stuffed lion or bottled scorpion in the miles of glass cases. Could not these odds and ends be got together and made into a little collection by themselves?

The importance of a branch of Art, such as that of Book Binding, may be almost unknown until a zealous collector shows by comparison how it may be made available for modern purposes of Art. Something of this kind is now being done in a quiet way by Mr. Jackson Howard, for book-bindings; and his copies, taken by rubbings, from the Royal Library, from Westminster Abbey, and various cathedral and ecclesiastic libraries, as well as the British Museum, show clearly that the art is one of extreme importance, very extensively practised in ancient times, and that many of the most important sources for its historical illustration have hitherto been neglected. Several very rich royal bindings were exhibited recently at the Society of Antiquaries by Mr. Felix Slade, and the following example of a binding, recently sold in the Savile Collection, deserves consideration. The volume is entitled 'Whitington Opera Varia,' and printed by Peter Treveris, Wynkin de Worde and Richard Pynson. The leather covering of this volume is impressed with the arms of Henry the Eighth impaling those of Anne Boleyn, viz., quarterly of six, 1st, England with a label of three points azure, charged with three lions passant gardant, or, and each point with three gold fleurs-de-lis. 2nd, France, ancient, with a label of five points argent. 3rd, Gules, a lion passant gardant, or. 4th, Butler and Rochfort quarterly. 5th, Thomas of Brotherton. 6th, Warren. The first three quarterings were granted to Anne Boleyn by Henry the Eighth, when he created her Marchioness of Pembroke. Butler, Brotherton and Warren, the Queen descended from, through her father, Thomas Boleyn, Earl of Wilts, and her mother, Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk. The shield is surmounted by an arched coronet, and is supported by two angels. Bindings impressed with the arms of Anne Boleyn are of extreme rarity. In the Library of Westminster Abbey is a volume printed by Jehan Petit, bearing the arms of Henry the Eighth, impaling those of Catherine of Arragon. Similar bindings are in the Cathedral Libraries of Lincoln, Gloucester, and Exeter, in the Bodleian, at Oxford, and in the British Museum also. A volume, in the British Museum, of Scotch Acts, dated Edinburgh, 1566, was

bound for Mary Queen of Scots, and her arms appear on the cover. A curious example appears on a volume in the Westminster Abbey Library, 'Annotationes in Proverbia Salomonis,' printed by Frobenius. It is impressed on one side with the Tudor Rose, surrounded by a scroll, supported by two angels, with the inscription—

Hea rosa virtutis de celo missa sereno
Eterna florens regis septa feret.

On the dexter side is a shield charged with a plain cross. On the sinister side a similar shield, bearing the arms of the City of London. Immediately beneath the rose is the merchant's mark and initials of the binder. The letters W.B. are stamped on this binding and refer to its original possessor, William Bill, D.D., Dean of Westminster. His monumental brass still remains in the Abbey. On the reverse side of the binding are the royal arms, France and England quarterly. Nor are devices on books of an exclusively heraldic turn; many figure compositions (in themselves of considerable merit, regarded as sculpture) may be found on them, illustrating the legends or personal characteristics of the day, whilst beautiful patterns and intricate ornaments occur upon the marginal portions and edges, which modern workmen might worthily study for imitation.

We have only to print the following protest:—

"Edinburgh, March 12.

"Will you allow me to say that I am not responsible for what I think the improper conduct of Messrs. Routledge, the publishers, in placing a portrait of Sir Charles Napier on the title-page of my novel 'Singleton Fenoteny.' Years ago, I warned these persons not to repeat what I considered a piece of claptrap of this kind; and I now learn that, in defiance of my opinion, they have again done so on the occasion of a fresh issue of the unlucky work.

JAMES HANNAY."

An interesting paper by Mr. Baldwin, in the *Journal of the Royal Dublin Society*, on the condition of the Irish Agricultural Labourer, shows that the average weekly wage of men in the counties of Antrim, Cavan, Down, Monaghan, Tyrone, Kilkeny, Cork, Limerick and Mayo is 6s. 11½d., and that of women 3s. 7½d.

An inspection of the bones of Charlemagne took place at Aix-la-Chapelle the other day. Fears had arisen that these remains might suffer from friction in their present wrappings; so permission was obtained from the Chapter, and in the presence of most of the notabilities of the town, the government officials, the whole Chapter and several physicians, the mausoleum was opened and the remains, or as the report says, the Ossa, Caroli M. were examined. They were found intact and in excellent preservation. After due ceremonial gone through, procession round the Cathedral, &c., liturgical prayers were said before these remains of the greatest protector of the Chair of St. Peter, and the cause of the present Pope was prayed for. We hope the Pope will not repose too much confidence in the power of these Ossa, strong and mighty as they once may have been. Careful photographs were taken of the wrappers, in which the remains of Charlemagne had rested for so many centuries: they were of beautiful silken tissue. The larger wrapper, rich in colour and design, was recognized as one of those *draps de lit* which were frequently mentioned by the Provengal troubadours as well as by the contemporary German Minnesängers, as *Pallia transmarina*, *P. Saracenia*. It is, no doubt, a product of industry of the Sicilian Saracens from the twelfth century. The second smaller wrapper, of a beautifully preserved purple colour, has been traced to Byzantine industry; the Greek inscriptions woven into the silk texture make it probable that the stuff was manufactured in the Imperial gymnasium at Byzantium in the tenth century.

The discovery of the long-missed, long-regretted Klingenberg Chronicle makes quite a cheerful sensation in the learned world of Germany and Switzerland. For a time this joy was damped by a suspicion that the important document might, after all, only be a copy of the well-known Chronicles of Sprenger or Hügli of Zurich. However, its genuineness seems to be established now

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beyond a doubt. Tschudi, the celebrated chronicler, first gave information of a chronicle written by different members of the aristocratic family of Klingenberg, during the period from 1240 to 1462. Tschudi draws largely on this Chronicle, quoting it in reference to the most ancient confederacy, to the noble families of Thurgau, and the Constance bishops. His contemporary, the geographer Stumpf, also borrows from the Klingenberg Chronicle the origin of Habsburg and the battle of Näfels (Glarus, 1388), in which one of the Klingenbergs perished. The learned bibliographer Haller, too, mentions it, regretting, at the same time, "that this curious chronicle seemed to be lost." In vain the historian Johannes von Müller, and the Mayor of Berne, von Mülinen, made careful inquiries; it had disappeared, and doubt sprang up whether it had existed at all. At last, Dr. Herme, in April, 1860, found the lost treasure in the archives of the canton, whither it had been taken from the former convent of the Benedictines. Here now were found in the original, interspersed with drawings of artistic value, the accounts of the origin of Habsburg, Rudolph's battles, Albrecht and his murderers, the Confederacy, the Consilium of Constance, the Appenzell war, Frederic the Third's coronation with every detail, the Turkish battle of Nicopolis, the Bohemian war, &c.; all described truthfully, and with a naïveté and vivacity which only eye-witnesses and contemporaries can be capable of. For the history of the thirteenth to the fifteenth century these are most valuable documents. The President of the Historical Society of Thurgau, S. A. Pupikofer, by order of the Government, carefully examined the Codex, and declared it to be the work by Klingenberg, which Tschudi had been in possession of, and which he had used. The Zurich chronicles of Hügli and Sprenger were at once found to be fragmentary and incomplete, as well as inaccurate copies of the Klingenberg Chronicle.

BRITISH INSTITUTION, Pall Mall.—The GALLERY for the EXHIBITION and SALE of the WORKS of BRITISH ARTISTS, is OPEN DAILY from Ten till Five.—Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d.

GEORGE NICOL, Secretary.

INSTITUTION of FINE ARTS, PORTLAND GALLERY, Regent Street, West End.—OPEN DAILY from Ten till Six.—THE FOURTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION of the WORKS of MODERN ARTISTS, is NOW OPEN, from Nine till Dusk.—Admission, One Shilling. Catalogues, Sixpence.

BELL SMITH, Secretary.

GARIBALDI IN THE CITY.—T. JONES PARKER'S GRAND HISTORICAL PAINTING of the GREAT ITALIAN PATRIOT GARIBALDI, in his Island Home, Caprera, is now ON VIEW DAILY, from Ten to Five o'clock, at Messrs. J. and R. JENNINGS' Fine Art Gallery, 68, Cheapside. N.B. Admission, Free by private Address or Invitation card.

THE PURSUIT OF PLEASURE.—This celebrated Allegorical Picture, by J. Noel Paton, R.S.A., containing upwards of Thirty Figures, is NOW ON VIEW at the GERMAN GALLERY, 168, New Bond Street, from Ten to Five.—Admission, One Shilling.

HOLMAN HUNT'S GREAT PICTURE.—The EXHIBITION of Holman Hunt's celebrated Picture of 'THE FINDING of the SAVIOR in the TEMPLE,' begun in Jerusalem in 1844, and finished in 1854, is NOW OPEN to the Public at the GERMAN GALLERY, 168, New Bond Street, from Twelve to Five.—Admission, One Shilling.

JERUSALEM GRAND PICTURES.—1. JERUSALEM in HER GRANDEUR, A.D. 33, with the TRIUMPHANT ENTRY of Jesus into the Holy City. IN HER FALL, as not viewed from the Mount of Olives. These great Works contain upwards of 200 special points of interest, and 200 Figures.—ON VIEW daily, from Ten till Five, at the Gallery, No. 5, Waterloo Place, Pall Mall.—Admission, Free on presentation of private address card.

PASSION WEEK.—HANOVER SQUARE ROOMS.—MR. FREDERICK PENNA (Pupil of Sir George Smart) exhibited a MUSICAL ENTERTAINMENT, performed with great SACRED MUSICAL ENTERTAINMENT, entitled 'The Oratorio Composers of the 18th and 19th Centuries,' on Monday Evening, March 25, and Saturday Evening, March 30; and on Wednesday Evening, March 27, a MUSICAL ENTERTAINMENT, 'Old Friends and New Maintenance.' To commence at Eight. Tickets, 2s. 6d. and 1s. at Mr. Mitchell's Royal Library, and at the principal Musicsellers.

SCIENCE

SOCIETIES.

ROYAL.—March 7.—General Sabine, Treasurer and V.P., in the chair.—The names of forty-eight Candidates for election into the Society were read.—The following papers were communicated:—'On a New Auxiliary Equation in the Theory of Equations of the Fifth Order,' by A. Cayley, Esq.;—'On the Porism of the In- and Circum-scribed Polygons,' by A. Cayley, Esq.;—'On Combustion in Rarefied Air,' by Dr. Frankland.

ASTRONOMICAL.—*Feb. 8.*—Annual General Meeting.—Rev. R. Main, President, in the chair.—Messrs. E. B. Bright, J. Beck, R. Inwards, J. Symmers, Rev. E. Frimstone, S. Mason, and J. Bonomi, were elected Fellows.—At the Meeting in January, Mr. J. L. Kenworthy was elected a Fellow.—The Report of the Council to the Forty-first Annual General Meeting of the Society was read. The assets and present property of the Society, Feb. 8, 1861, were stated to be:—Balance at banker's, 276L. 19s. 3d.; four contributions of three years' standing, 25L. 4s.; twenty-one contributions of two years' standing, 88L. 4s.; seventeen contributions of one year's standing, 35L. 14s.; on account of arrears, 6L.; due for publications of the Society, 1L. 9s.; 3,500L. New Three per cents.; 2,000L. Consols (including the Fund); unsold publications of the Society; various astronomical instruments, books, prints, &c.; balance of Turnor Fund (included in Treasurer's account), 45L. 3s. 4d.—An Address was delivered by the President, on presenting the Gold Medal of the Society to M. Hermann Goldschmidt.—The Meeting proceeded to the election of the Officers and Council for the ensuing year, when the following Fellows were elected:—President, J. Lee, Esq., LL.D.; Vice-Presidents, G. B. Airy, Esq., Astronomer Royal, Rev. Robert Main, Augustus De Morgan, Esq., and Rev. C. Pritchard; Treasurer, S. C. Whitbread, Esq.; Secretaries, R. C. Carrington, Esq., and Warren De La Rue, Esq.; Foreign Secretary, Admiral R. H. Manners; Council, J. C. Adams, Esq., A. Cayley, Esq., R. Farley, Esq., Rev. G. Fisher, C. Frodsham, Esq., J. Glaisher, Esq., R. Hodgson, Esq., W. S. Jacob, Esq., Admiral W. H. Smyth, C. B. Vignoles, Esq., C. V. Walker, Esq., and Rev. T. W. Webb, M.A.

GEOGRAPHICAL.—*March 11.*—Sir R. I. Murchison in the chair.—Commanders P. H. Dyke and H. E. Gunnell, R.N., Major W. Ross King, Dr. W. L. Lindsay, Rev. E. J. Moon, the Hon. R. Noel, Sir H. Stacey, M.P., Major A. Strange, Rev. W. H. Walker, J. Anderson, R. Armstrong, H. Baillie, W. Brodie, P. Morrison, S. Ingall, T. G. Knox, G. Lorimer, W. R. M'Connell, P. Miles and J. E. Woods, Esqs., were elected Fellows.—The papers read were: 'Account of Four Excursions in the Japanese Island of Jesso,' by Prof. Hodgson, Esq.;—'Travels in Siam,' by Sir R. H. Schomburgk.

GEOLOGICAL.—*March 6.*—L. Horner, Esq., President, in the chair.—F. G. S. Parker and J. G. Jeffreys, Esqs., were elected Fellows.—The following communications were read: 'On the Succession of Beds in the Hastings Sand in the Northern Portion of the Wealden Area,' by F. Drew, Esq.;—'On the Permian Rocks of the South of Yorkshire; and on their Paleontological Relations,' by J. W. Kirby, Esq.

ASIATIC.—*March 9.*—Col. Sykes, M.P., in the chair.—H. Pratt, R. Dalglish, M.P., R. D. Parker, Esqs., were elected resident, and His Excellency Mirza Ja'er Khan, Ambassador from H.M. the Shah of Persia, non-resident Members.—A paper was read by the Secretary, 'On the Biography of Ghosh-Gheray, the last Khan of the Crimea, and presumed Author of an Ode in Turkish.'

SOCIETY of ANTIQUARIES.—*March 7.*—J. Bruce, Esq., V.P., in the chair.—Capt. Windus communicated remarks on a Galley of the Knights of Saint John, built at Nice in the year 1530 circiter, called the Santa Anna, of about 1,700 tons, entirely sheathed with lead from the bulwarks downwards, and below the water-line bolted with brass bolts. Along with these remarks, Capt. Windus exhibited, by permission of Sir George Bowyer, Six Paintings of other Gallies belonging to the Knights of Saint John, and the Portrait of a "Captain of Gallies," whose name, as far as we could make out, was "Rocella."—Mr. Major exhibited Tracings from an old Map, showing that the Portuguese have a priority over the Dutch of five years in the discovery of Australia. We refer to this subject in our Gossip columns.

LINNEAN.—*March 7.*—Prof. Bell, President, in the chair.—B. Carrington, M.D., was elected a

Fellow.—The following papers were read, viz.:—'Notes on Menispermacae,' 'Notes on Tiliaceae,' 'Notes on Bixaceæ and Samydaceæ,' by G. Bentham, Esq.—'On the Vegetation of Clarence Peak, Fernando Po, with Descriptions of Mr. Gustav Mann's Plants from the higher parts of that Mountain,' by J. D. Hooker, Esq., M.D.

ZOOLOGICAL.—*March 12.*—J. Gould, Esq., V.P., in the chair.—Dr. Cobbold read a paper describing some Cystic Entozoa from the Wart-hog and the Red River-hog, which had recently died in the Society's menagerie.—A paper was read by Mr. J. A. Stewart, 'On the Occurrence in the British Seas of *Asteronyx lovenii* of Müller and Troschel.' A specimen of this Starfish had been taken in Loch Torridon, in Ross-shire, in the summer of 1859.—Mr. E. W. H. Holdsworth pointed out the characters of a new British species of Zoanthus, from an example taken by Mr. T. H. Stewart in Plymouth Sound, in August, 1860, and proposed to call it *Z. rubricornis*.—Dr. Gray described a new species of Squirrel, in the British Museum collection, from New Grenada, for which he proposed the name *Sciurus Gerrardi*.—Mr. R. F. Tomes communicated some notes on the genus *Monophyllus* of Leach.—A letter was read from Lieut.-Col. Cavan, respecting a very fine example of *Pentacrinus capitatus* taken at St. Lucia, in the West Indies, which was exhibited to the Meeting.—Dr. Crisp exhibited drawings of two species of Fish from a salt lagoon near Cape Coast Castle in South Africa.

CHEMICAL.—*March 7.*—Dr. Hofmann, For. Sec., in the chair.—Mr. J. J. Coleman was elected a Fellow.—Prof. Field read a paper 'On some New Minerals from Chili.'—Dr. Hofmann gave an account of some further Researches by Mr. Greiss on Nitrogen Substitutions.

INSTITUTION of CIVIL ENGINEERS.—*Dec. 4, 11, and Jan. 8, 15.*—George P. Bidder, Esq., President, in the chair.—The discussion upon Mr. W. H. Preece's paper, 'On the Maintenance and Durability of Submarine Cables in Shallow Waters,' occupied four evenings.

March 12.—George P. Bidder, Esq., President, in the chair.—The paper read was, 'On the North Sea, or German Ocean; with Remarks on some of its Estuaries, Rivers and Harbours,' by Mr. John Murray.

INSTITUTE of ACTUARIES.—*Feb. 25.*—C. Jellicoe, Esq., President, in the chair.—A paper was read by Mr. Thomas Bond Sprague, 'On Mr. Gompertz's Law of Human Mortality.'

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

MON.	Royal Academy, 8.—Sculpture,' Mr. Westmacott.
TUES.	Architects, 8.—Royal Institution, 9.—'Travels in Western Central Africa,' M. Chailly.
WED.	Statistical, 8.—'Taxes on Enjoyments,' M. de Parieu.
THURS.	Engineers, 8.—'North Sea,' Mr. Murray.
FRI.	Royal Institution, 3.—'Fishes,' Prof. Owen.
SAT.	Ethnological, 8.—'Ancient Forms of Civilization,' Dr. Knox; 'Native of E. Australia,' &c., Mr. Parker Snow.
SUN.	Meteorological, 7.—'Loss of Colour of Ozone Test-papers,' Dr. Moffat; 'Dew-Point at Low Temperatures,' Mr. Eaton; 'Low Temperature,' Feb. 8, America,' Mr. Gilman.

Society of Arts, 8.—'History of Paraffine,' Mr. Tomlinson.

Geological, 8.—'Fossil Plants, Nagpur, India,' Sir C. Burrey; 'Age of Sandstone and Coal-beds, Nagpur,' Rev. S. Hutton; 'Plants in Coal-bearing Beds of Australia,' Rev. W. B. Clarke.

Numismatic, 8.—Royal Academy, 8.—Painting,' Mr. Hart.

Linnean, 8.—'Zoological Census,' Mr. Newton; 'Ant from Hollow Land,' Mr. Smith; 'Fee of Insects,' Mr. West.

Chemical, 8.—'Thermo-dynamics in relation to Chemical Affinity,' Dr. Williamson.

Royal, 8.—'Relations of the Vomer, Ethmoid and Intermaxillary Bones,' Dr. J. Cleland; 'Structure and Growth of the Tooth of Echinus,' Mr. S. J. A. Salter.

Antiquaries, 8.—Royal Institution, 3.—'Electricity,' Prof. Tyndall.

Royal Institution, 8.—'Parallel Roads of Glen Roy,' Prof. Rogers.

Royal Institution, 3.—'Inorganic Chemistry,' Dr. Frankland.

FINE ARTS

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—The private view of the French Exhibition takes place to-day. We understand it contains, with other notable works, a charming picture by M. Édouard Frère.

We stated recently the particulars of Mr. Robinson's purchase for the South Kensington

Museum, of a portion of the famous Campana Collection of works of Art. A larger section of the same has been acquired by the Russian Government, for the sum of 27,000*l.* Much yet remains for sale by private contract. This includes the whole of the jewelry, and all the Etruscan vases, except about 500, which go to Russia. The silver helmet and the celebrated *idris* accompany the last. Several pictures, the most remarkable one being Raphael's 'Rape of Helen'; and some statues, busts and sarcophagi, go also. It will be remembered that the English purchase was for 6,000*l.*, a much larger, but inadequate, offer for such portions of the grand whole was, we believe, made by Mr. Robinson. Even divided as it has been, the price likely to be obtained for the whole collection will be small. Is it too late, even now, to obtain such portions of the residue as may enhance the value, by making them more complete, of our national collection? It is rare, indeed, for a like opportunity to occur.

Mr. G. Adams has a commission to execute a statue of the late General Sir William Napier, for St. Paul's Cathedral, he having already executed one of the late General Sir Charles J. Napier. It is to be hoped the sculptor will avoid the clumsy disproportions which mark the Napier statue in Trafalgar Square.

The Lord Chancellor stated in the House of Lords, on Friday last, when moving that the House go into committee upon the Trade Marks Bill, that he had resolved to retain the clause with regard to the forgery of marks on works of Art, as he had ascertained that it would not interfere with the Copyright Bill in the other House.

Mr. Holman Hunt's picture of the 'Finding of our Saviour in the Temple,' having been replaced in the German Gallery, we revisited it, with a view to ascertain what injury, if any, it had received from the effects of the fire reported to have taken place shortly before New Year's Day last. Not the slightest mischief befell this work, beyond a trifling stain upon the sky seen through the open door of the Temple, due mainly to the passage of smoke beneath the glass, we opine. During the recess, while the picture has been in the engraver's hands, Mr. Holman Hunt has repaired the damage, and it is now impossible to tell that even so minute an injury had been inflicted. It is certain, nevertheless, that a great risk was incurred of the total destruction of the picture. This occurred through the drapery, employed to moderate the light admitted into the exhibition-room, becoming ignited from the lighted gas. The blaze soon ran round the apartment, to the terror of the visitors and the attendants. One of the last, mounting a sort of cornice above where the picture is suspended, endeavoured to extinguish the flames, which were almost surrounding him; he appealed to the visitors who remained in the room for some cloths or like fabrics with which to extinguish the burning hangings. A lady immediately took off a valuable India shawl and threw it up to the person above. So aided, he put out the fire; and in a short time every danger was over. The lady, whose generous sacrifice in all probability saved the result of Mr. Hunt's five years' labour, gave her name, or it was given for her, but owing to the confusion of the moment the attendants only recollect the title of "Lady" attached to it. Mr. Holman Hunt, that he may acknowledge his great obligation, and the Phoenix Insurance Office, that it may replace the costly shawl, have endeavoured to discover the lady to whom they are so deeply indebted, but without effect. It is to be hoped some person, if not the lady herself, will inform the parties interested of the name of her whose magnanimous act saved a great picture from destruction.

At the German Gallery will be found Mr. J. Noel Paton's picture, 'The Pursuit of Pleasure,' which was exhibited at the British Institution in 1858, and there so placed as to form one of the innumerable instances of stupidly bad hanging and inconceivable blundering which have insulted the public taste, and injured the reputations, not alone of youthful and struggling artists, but of many of note and position. In this instance the evil was small to the painter, owing to the re-exhibition of

the picture; the loss, therefore, falls upon the so-called "Institution," which "promotes the Fine Arts in the United Kingdom" after this fashion. We introduce this subject *à propos* to Mr. J. Noel Paton's picture, because one example patent to the eyesight is worth a thousand volumes of preaching, remonstrance or argument. Mr. Firth's letters can have no such effect by half as the sight of the work in question, when the visitors learn that 'The Pursuit of Pleasure,' hung on the third row, over the south fireplace, at the British Institution, in the year 1858. By no means all that the critic could wish,—being almost as hard as if it had come through a rolling press, metallic in colour and not too profound or original in treatment of subject; above all, an allegory, in these days when allegories, thank Heaven! are exploded,—it will not carry away criticism captive by any peculiar and novel fascinations; but still it is solidly, soundly, honestly and well executed to a high degree, and, although the prosaic means of execution least of all suits an ideal theme,—in the present case it is like ironing out a butterfly's wings,—yet not to give a good place to such a picture was an astounding impertinence. We may briefly describe this work, which is re-exhibited for engraving, as representing a phantom female floating before a crowd of followers, who urgently dash towards destruction on the shores of an angry sea. We must do Mr. Paton the justice to state that his work is not merely the claptrap common-place of a sermon against sensualism,—for the syren is followed by the student, the debauchee, the soldier, the bacchanal, statesman, priest and labourer, as the personification of the selfish allurements of individual indulgence; each by his peculiar temptation falls into her train. The wide-winged Angel of Wrath broods, sword in hand, above the crowd. Enduring the allegory, we cannot but praise the sound drawing and air of motion pervading the design.

A sale of English pictures took place at Messrs. Christie & Manson's, on Saturday last. The following are the most remarkable lots:—The Dance, by Mr. Frost, a large well-known picture, exhibiting more animation of design than is usual with the artist, from Mr. Pemberton's collection, 101 guineas (Greaves).—The Cottar's Sunday Morning, an early work by Mr. J. Philip, 245 guineas (Pearce).—Warrior Poets contending in Song, exhibited at the Royal Academy, 1859, Mr. F. R. Pickersgill, 180 guineas.—Sir Guyon led by the Palmer to the Bower of Bliss, one of Mr. Poole's best works for refinement of colour and vigorous treatment, 120 guineas (Dobson).—Bristol, from Meton Hill, painted by Müller, for Mr. T. Robson, 195 guineas.—View of Edinburgh, the well-known picture by Mr. D. Roberts, painted for W. Playfair, the architect, 250 guineas (Dobson).—Jerusalem (not the Siege shown at the Royal Academy a few years since), the same, 380 guineas (Jones).—Lear, lately at the Royal Academy, by Mr. Poole, 260 guineas (Robson).—The Deer in the Lake, a large picture by Sir E. Landseer, now being engraved, 1,600 guineas (Robson).—View near Whitchurch, W. Müller, 118 guineas (Bourne).—Hampstead Heath, Mr. J. Linnell, 122 guineas (Robson).—Corfu, W. Müller, 119 guineas (Brabazon).—Waiting for the Ferry, Upper Egypt, by Mr. J. F. Lewis, 150 guineas (Bourne). The collection resulted altogether upwards of 5,000*l.*

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

MOLIQUE'S ORATORIO, ABRAHAM.—Under the immediate Patronage of Her Majesty, H.R.H. the Prince Consort, and the other Members of the Royal Family.—Herr Molique will conduct his Oratorio, *ABRAHAM*, for the First Time in London on TUESDAY EVENING NEXT, March 19, at Half past Eight. Quintett, Op. 5, Berwald; Sonata, Op. 102, No. 2, Beethoven; Fantasia, Op. 159, Schubert; Quartett, Op. 3, Mendelssohn; Scotch Symphony, Beethoven's Violin Concerto, Miss Moss. Programmes, illustrated by G. A. Macfarlane.—Tickets at Cramer's, Ewer's, Chappell's, Schott's and Betts's Warehouses.

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.—Mr. GYE has the honour to announce that the OPERA SEASON of 1861 will COMMENCE on TUESDAY, April 2. On the Opening Night will be performed, Meyerbeer's Grand Opera, *LE PROPHÈTE*. The Programme, with full particulars, may be had at the Box Office, under the Portico of the Theatre.

MESSRS. KILDWORTH, H. BLAGROVE, and DAUBERT'S THIRD CONCERT, at the Hanover Square Rooms, TUESDAY EVENING NEXT, March 19, at Half past Eight. Quintett, Op. 5, Berwald; Sonata, Op. 102, No. 2, Beethoven; Fantasia, Op. 159, Schubert; Quartett, Op. 3, Mendelssohn; Scotch Symphony, Beethoven's Violin Concerto, Miss Moss. Programmes, illustrated by G. A. Macfarlane.—Tickets at Cramer's, Ewer's, Chappell's, Schott's and Betts's Warehouses.

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.—Under the Management of Miss Louisa Pyne and Mr. W. Harrison, sole Lessees.—On TUESDAY, the 19th, for the BENEFIT of Mr. W. HARRISON, Manager, to commence at Eight o'clock. *La Vallée* by MARINETTA, for this night only: Don Cesare de Basan, Mr. Alfred Mellot, Mme. Arline, Miss Louise Pyne, Mrs. Miss Letitia, Mme. H. Corri, St. Albyn, Horncastle, Lampi, Miss Huddart, Miss Lettier, Conductor, Mr. Alfred Mellot. And a Grand Concert, in which Eminent Artists will appear.

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.—Under the Management of Miss Louisa Pyne and Mr. W. Harrison, sole Lessees.—THURSDAY the 21st, for the BENEFIT of Miss LOUISA PYNE, Manageress, commencing at Eight o'clock. *La Vallée* by MARINETTA, for this night only: Don Cesare de Basan, Mr. Alfred Mellot, Mme. Arline, Miss Louise Pyne, Mrs. Miss Letitia, Mme. H. Corri, St. Albyn, Horncastle, Conductor, Mr. Alfred Mellot. To conclude with the 3rd Act of *BOHEMIAN GIRL*: Thaddens, Mr. W. Harrison; Arline, Miss Louise Pyne; and the Members of the Royal English Opera Company.

NEW PUBLICATIONS. PIANOFORTE MUSIC.

ONCE more we are called on to admire at—which is not precisely to admire—the good faith of pianoforte composers. How easily contented must they feel, or fancy the public to be, when they offer the world little beyond "sketches," "im-promptus," melodies,—those slight wares, in short, which only have any value and bear a stamp when they are the triflings of some great man with ideas. This favourite mode of proceeding, closely resembling modesty as it does, is open to a different interpretation. Who does not know the poems published by the request of friends? and who has not said, if once, one thousand times, "Why publish before such time as the aspirant feels capable of offering some work of importance?"

These *Six Sketches*, in two books, by John Francis Barnett, Op. 2 (Leader & Co.), are more solid and deserving of attention than the generality of compositions bearing the title. There is nothing to startle by its originality. No. 3. (in first and second books) has been directly inspired by admiration of Mendelssohn; but a pleasant ease and firmness of hand are discernible throughout. No. 1, in book the second, is commendable for its vigorous character. The entire publication, in short, is above the average, and promising.—*Two Musical Sketches*, by James Lee Summers (Addison & Co.), are the smallest of small ware conceivable.

Costanza-Imromptu, par M. Silas, Op. 49 (Ewer & Co.), is the small work of one who has vindicated his right to play by producing compositions of a higher order and more ample structure than the "Notturno" or "Song without words." "Small," moreover, with M. Silas, is rarely synonymous with "frivolous." This is a good expressive movement.

In a *First Tarantelle* (Cocks & Co.), Mr. Brinley Richards has obviously aimed at something superior and more important than the arrangements, *fantasias*, &c., with which his name has been principally associated. But a new *Tarantelle* is not easy to write. The very measure precludes much variety of form. Whereas a *Polonoise* may have many humours and a minut as many, the *Galope* and *Polka* themselves are not more despot in the rhythms and recurrences enjoined than the Neapolitan dance. It becomes, then, a matter of the nicest art to get the needful relief without "wandering out of the record." Among the best examples of the *Tarantelle* which we recollect are the handful of real Southern tunes so brilliantly and fantastically wrought together by Dr. Liszt, and those by Prof. Moscheles and M. Heller. Mr. Richards has done his best. Care and ingenuity have not been withheld by him in working out and in finishing his work; but he has not altogether escaped the monotony of a "one-two" beat, nor remembered so well as he might have done, that to make an episode tell in composition (no matter what its character), change of form is as requisite as change of key.—From the same author and publishers, we have *The Angel's Song, Romance, Contemplation* (which is elegant, and may have its use as a study),—and *The Vision, Romance*.

Oberon, Grand Duo, and Guillaume Tell, Grand Duo (Chappell & Co.), are by Herr Wilhelm Ganz—neither of any great value. The former is hardly a duo so much as a solo with accompaniment of a second pair of hands. It is not easy now to treat the themes of Weber's "Swan Song" and Signor Rossini's last opera. The *Duet Variations* by M. Herz on the March in the Archery Scene, will hold their own, long after the *fantasia* of M. Ganz is forgotten.—*Le Bonheur Suprême* is a *Nocturne Mélodique* (same author

and publishers).—To this paragraph may be added the titles of *L'Oisillon*, by Fritz Spindler (Op. 76), —*La Harpe, Mélodie Originale variée*, par J. A. Pacher (Op. 9). This is a tremendous study of arpeggi passages for the pianoforte.—*Le Ruisseau, Etude de Salon* (same composer, Op. 34), —graceful rather than original; and still better, because simpler, his Op. 53, *Tendresse, Morceau Mélodieux*. (The above are published by Ewer & Co.)—Lastly, for the present, we must name *Caledonia*, arrangements of Scotch melodies (Olivier), —“Attendez-moi,” a Polka, with an Introduction (Addison & Co.), —*The Defiance Galop* (Williams), as by Francesco Berger,—and a Military Polka, by Lieut. Pinkney (Keith, Prowse & Co.).

HAYMARKET.—Mr. Tom Taylor, mindful of his laurels, which have of late been somewhat tarnished, has given to these boards a new piece, under the title of ‘A Duke in Difficulties,’ which, if we are to credit the tag, is in the author’s opinion to restore his waning reputation. It has evidently been written to introduce Mrs. Stirling and her daughter, and was originally intended, we understand, for Drury Lane; but has migrated with those two actresses to the present house. We much fear that the new drama is little calculated to benefit either the author or the performers, and that the allusions in it to the latter are very far from being in good taste. The general outline of the plot is taken from a tale in *Blackwood’s Magazine*; but, in the filling-up, additional details are inserted which compose the interest of the third act,—concerning the future of an interesting young actress, whose mother is thrown into a state of anxiety by the attention bestowed on her by an amorous young prince. The Duke, whose difficulties are the motive for the action of the piece, is the Grand-Duke of *Kleinstadt Waldstein* (Mr. Howe), who is deserted by his ministers because he cannot pay them their salaries. They also enter into a conspiracy with the *Baron von Dampfnoedel* (Mr. Rogers) for the sale of the duchy to the Margrave of Wolkenburg, whose diplomatic pretensions and unpolished spouse (Mrs. Wilkins) furnish the humour by which the more serious business of the scene is to be varied. The Duke’s difficulties are brought to a head by the circumstance of a State visit impending from the Landgrave of Braunsback and the Princess Wilhelmina, his sister. He has no court to receive them, with an exchequer incapable of making a show even of one day’s wealth. At this juncture a company of players applies for patronage, encouraged by a promise made on a previous visit to the Duchy. *Monsieur De la Rampe* (Mr. Buckstone) listens to the apologies of the Duke with a good grace, and even with a sympathy for the distresses of greatness; and finding that a performance is impossible in the absence of a theatre and an audience, proposes to form a provisional ministry and court of himself and his troupe, for the reception of the Landgrave and his sister. The Duke is delighted with the idea, and immediately invests him with authority, and gives the company the run of his wardrobe, so that they soon got dressed in appropriate court-dresses. *De la Rampe* loses no time, but, inviting the members of the retired cabinet to a ball extemporised for the nonce, has them all arrested and safely placed in the state tower. He next proceeds to bamboozle the diplomatic Baron, by making him jealous of his wife, whom he contrives to engage with his light comedian, *Bellecour* (Mr. Compton), who makes love to her and proposes an elopement, the object being to induce the Baron to follow the fugitive wife, and thus procure his absence from the court. This episode is intended to be amusing; and another concerning *La Joconde* (Mrs. Stirling) and her daughter *Colombe* (Miss Fanny Stirling) to be pathetic. *Bellecour*, the general lover of the theatrical establishment, has exerted not in vain his arts on the young lady, who is grieved at first at his desertion, but is soon consoled by the attentions of the Landgrave. Against this new danger, *La Joconde* is remarkably vigilant, and even appeals to the Duke. The conversation that ensues reveals that *Colombe* is really the Duke’s sister through a left-handed marriage of her mother with the Count Mansfeldt,

which was the travelling name of the late Grand-Duke. The manner in which Mr. Buckstone has placed the piece on the stage is irreproachable. The picnic party in the second act, with the ruins of an ancient feudal castle, composed a set-scene that was perfectly charming. But the business of the act, consisting of frequent entrances and exits, was about as tedious as can well be conceived. The maternal anxiety for the daughter in the third act was more to the purpose; but as it was manifest that the young lady was never in peril,—the intentions of the Landgrave having been honourable throughout,—the anxiety of the audience was not answerable to that of *La Joconde*. Among the actors, none deserves more praise than Mr. Clark, who, as the Grand-Duke’s valet, named *Krebs*, was the perfection of a major-domo. He really gave an apparent life and motion to the scene when nothing actual was going on but fragments of useless talk. We cannot recollect a single jest or sentiment that in the whole piece told on the audience. Mr. Tom Taylor will do well to choose another mode of treatment for his forthcoming dramas; if he still continue obstinate in his present perverse plan of proceeding, and persist in inditing conversational pieces without “plot” or “passion,” he will find at no distant day that his name has lost the prestige which he had worthily obtained by two or three of his earlier pieces.

DRURY LANE.—Mr. Charles Mathews, having returned to this theatre, has strengthened his position by the production of a five-act drama, entitled, ‘The Savannah.’ He has, for this purpose, adapted the plot of a French work, but considerably altered it both in regard to its details and their arrangement. The success of the play depends on its mechanical effects, to which great attention has been paid. The hero, one *Will Wander*, is, of course, personated by Mr. Mathews himself. He is a roving Englishman who, coming into possession of twelve hundred pounds, had determined on spending it in travelling for three years. Two have expired at the commencement of the play, and he is about to continue his excursion through the southern part of America. He has a friend whose life he has saved, one *Colonel Silas Pennyfecker* (Mr. Robert Roxby), whom he commissions to convey a miniature to a young lady in Mexico, the daughter of an officer who had died in India. It is soon learnt that the lady and her mother had been wrecked on a voyage to Valparaiso, and numbered among the drowned. But the daughter nevertheless turns up in the shape of a pretty mendicant, *Rita* (Mrs. C. Mathews). The second act takes us to Mexico, where we find that the mother has also been preserved. The estate belonging to them, however, passed over to a relation, *Oliveirez* (Mr. Ryder), who is a piratical chief, and whose title is disputed by another relative, one *Sebastian* (Mr. M’Lein). The contest between them is carried through the piece; for Sebastian is a formidable foe, being a dead shot, and a man of firmness and resolution. Variety and picturesqueness of action is, however, more sought after than coherence or probability in the incidents. Too many are introduced only for their own sakes, and lead to no result. Thus we have a will uselessly burnt, there being a duplicate in reserve; the said duplicate being equally useless, the death of the usurper Oliveirez being a full solution of all difficulties without the intervention of any will at all. Then the heroine is in peril of a boa constrictor; but as the serpent is instantly shot, the incident only serves as the occasion for some clever stage machinery, but not in the least to carry on the action. Then the heroine procures insensibility by smelling at some wild poppies, and appears dead, in order to delude Oliveirez; but as she afterwards falls into new dangers from him, the contrivance might have been spared. Oliveirez himself, too, drinks by mistake of the Java wine that he had intended for *Will Wander*, and the curtain falls upon his apparent death; yet in the next act, he is found alive and as mischievous as ever. Sebastian, also, incurs a multitude of temporary disasters, all of which he triumphantly overcomes, or is delivered from by his sister *Rita*; and none is therefore of any importance, except

the last, where he is one of the combatants in a quadrangular duel, after the American fashion, which takes place in the primeval wilderness, and in which the parties dodge one another behind the trees, until Oliveirez and his lieutenant fall from rifle shots. The scenery throughout is painted by Mr. Beverley in his best style,—one elaborate set-scene to each act, representing mountain and forest scenery, with cataracts and rivers truly American in their aspect and general character. The acting of Mr. Mathews was, as usual, vivacious, and that of Mr. Ryder stern, strong and effective, particularly in the scene in which he suffers from the Java-poison. But, on the whole, the action was languid and the dialogue pointless; scenery, machinery and melodramatic situations being the means of success exclusively depended on. That they will attain their object is probable.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—The music of ‘The Amber Witch’ was published simultaneously with that opera’s appearance, by Messrs. Cramer & Co. This plan of hurry, which is peculiar to England, though it may promote the sale of a few copies to gratify instant curiosity, precludes correctness; since a number of changes (and as here we happen to know, restorations of original text) may take place during the last rehearsals, which cannot be offered to the public. Then, writers no less skilled than Mendelssohn and M. Meyerbeer have preferred delay till their effects have been tested on their audiences. In whichever light it be viewed, the fashion of publishing a long and elaborate work at so early a date is to be deprecated. —The English season at Her Majesty’s Theatre comes to a close this evening,—but it has been said that ‘The Amber Witch’ is to be removed bodily to Drury Lane. This will necessitate either the convocation of a new orchestra and chorus for Mr. Smith’s Italian operas, or involve the performers already engaged in an amount of hard work which there is small chance of being efficiently got through.—Mr. Smith, however, has original ideas of managing an opera, announced as an “unprecedented success”; since it seemed good to him on a recent evening to reduce the orchestra to a scale entirely unfit for the rendering of a work so largely depending on orchestral richness and complication as Mr. Wallace’s. Composers will be loth to subject their scores to such chances of success and permanence.—With regard to future efforts and works in preparation for the rival theatres in seasons to come, Rumour is more than usually busy. Among works by English composers, we see mentioned a pair of operas by Mr. F. Mori, one on a Florentine story (possibly an opera written in Italy some time since), and two operas by Mr. Macfarren; one of these on a subject no less arduous than ‘Hamlet.’ It is no light undertaking to represent for England in music to a text inevitably sketchy and incomplete those “beings of the mind” whom even our most poetical and accomplished actors have only at rare intervals succeeded in impersonating. But the above is not the only instance of trying Shakspeare operas which is now talked of.—Among other productions in English adjourned till another season, we hear of translations of Nicolai’s ‘Merry Wives of Windsor’ and of Signor Verdi’s ‘Macbeth.’—How these works are to be represented, unless some English Blache is to arise, or Madame Viardot can be lured to sing *The Lady’s* part in London, is a puzzle. It is said that a new English opera by Mr. Wallace may be produced early in autumn.—During the past supplementary week of the English Opera season at Covent Garden, Mendelssohn’s ‘Son and Stranger’ has been performed, together with ‘The Black Domino.’

This has been in some degree a satisfactory concert-week. —Dr. Wyld deserves credit for having at the first of his concerts brought forward Schubert’s Symphony in C. His solo players were, Miss Arabella Goddard, who played Weber’s Concerto in E flat, and M. Vieuxtemps, who is in universal request.—The Vocal Association gave a concert, with a good programme, on Tuesday evening.—We were glad to see announced a Quintett by Onslow; feeling him to be a composer more

completely overlooked in late days than his grace, individuality and science deserve. Miss Banks and Madame Laura Baxter were the solo singers. The first lady was deservedly called on to repeat the song with chorus from Mr. Benedict's "Undine." —The Glee and Madrigal Union have been singing at the Crystal Palace during the week.—Today, M. and Madame Sainton are to appear there, and Schumann's Fourth Symphony is to be performed.

Mr. Gye announces 'Le Prophète' as the opera with which the Italian season at Covent Garden will open on the 2nd of next month. On his programme—which has reached us at the eleventh hour—we shall offer comment this day week. For the present, it must suffice to say, that one so little satisfactory has not been issued since Italian Opera has been given at Covent Garden.

Among the first arrivals in London for the season has been that of Miss Alice Mangold, who has been studying the pianoforte under the tuition of Herr Henselt.

The Anniversary Dinner of the Royal Society of Musicians was held on Thursday last, with the Hon. H. F. Berkeley in the chair.

The Glasgow papers announce that a performance of 'Judas Maccabeus' took place there on the 13th; also, of a new setting of the favourite One-Hundred-and-Thirty-eighth Psalm, this time treated in music by Mr. Lambeth.

Foreign journals announce that the first volume of Mendelssohn's Correspondence will appear shortly.

The post-bag from Paris brings this week very little musical news worth having or betokening prosperity. The quarrels, difficulties, intrigues, accusations and hesitations of which Herr Wagner's "Tannhäuser" has been the centre may, by some De Lafosse or About to come, be wrought up into a book as amusing as the one in which the Gluck controversies are recorded.—What does it matter!—False music cannot be made to live, be the throes of excitement over its birth ever so provocative of interest. Real music will not die, let the throes of difficulty in bringing it to life be ever so protracted in their suffering.—The difficulties of arriving at any plan for the new Grand Opera House seem as many, as if the country were not France, but England. The rewards to the competitors have been liberal. The best have been invited to compete again. There is now a talk that another situation than that on the Rue Basses des Remparts may be chosen:—this in the neighbourhood of the Place Vendôme.—The "style Pompadour" seems to be the rage in the theatres just now. 'Le Jardinier Galant,' in which the story turns upon Coll's song with that title, a slight two-act piece, with music by M. Poise, is the latest novelty at the Opéra Comique.—M. Damcke, a Russian composer and critic, has been giving a concert of chamber-music, at which the pianist was Madame Viardot.—Signor Montanaro, a tenor with a light voice, has made his *début* at the Italian Opera House, in 'L'Italiana.'—Government has purchased a large and valuable collection of musical instruments brought together by M. Clapison, and has presented the same to the Conservatoire.—A new grand organ was "opened" at Dijon on the 7th.

But when our country's cause provokes to arms,
How martial music every bosom warms!
Pope's two stirring lines the other day received an illustration as enthusiastic as tangible, in a silver crown, sent by the Hungarians of Raab to M. Berlioz, as a homage to him for having scored the National Ragoczy March, in his 'Faust.' This was done many years ago, the composer states, and with a view of making himself popular in Hungary, and was received with frantic acclamations at Pesth. Now, the version of M. Berlioz seems to have been accepted as another 'Marseillaise' by a wild, munificent, picturesque public, gentle and simple,—theatrically fond of dressing up,—of voting *Excaliburs* to musicians, jewelled sickles to operatic *Normas*, and crowns of silver to quiet men who will never wear such a crown. There is in all this something of bauble-worship as well as of hero-worship;—but the wild, yet withal rich, tribute is one worth recording in these times.

MISCELLANEA

Dante's Paradise.—In the interesting communication of your distinguished Dantesque correspondent, Dr. Barlow, "Garibaldi the Velro of Dante," I observe an allusion to the circumstance that the final thirteen cantos of the 'Paradise' were not forthcoming when Dante died, and to the "marvellous vision which happened to Jacopo" Allighieri, and "through which, as related by Boccaccio, the missing cantos were found where the poet had hidden them." I should feel indebted to Dr. Barlow if he would favour me by stating in the *Athenæum*, with your permission, whether he is aware of any authority for this remarkable story besides Boccaccio, to clear up the question whether the vision appeared to Jacopo himself, or to Piero Giardino; because (as it seems to me) the statements made by Boccaccio on the point are conflicting, and leave the point in great doubt. The story is so curious that perhaps your readers will not object to seeing it in full. I translate (literally) from the edition of Boccaccio, of Parma, dated 1801:—"Dante's sons, Jacopo and Piero, each of whom was writer in rhyme, had, at the instance of some of their friends, set to, as far as they could, to supplement the paternal work, that it might not remain imperfect; when to Jacopo, who was more fervent herein than the other, appeared a marvellous vision; which not only diverted them from their foolish presumption, but showed them where were the thirteen cantos which were wanting to the Divine Comedy, and which they had not succeeded in finding. A worthy man of Ravenna, whose name was Piero Giardino, long a disciple of Dante, used to relate that, after the 8th month following the death of his master, he had, one night near the hour which we call matin, come to the house of the aforesaid Jacopo, and told him that he that night, a little before that hour, had seen in his sleep his father Dante, clothed in most white vesture, and shining in countenance with an unwonted light, come to him, who seemed to him to ask whether he was living, and to hear from him in reply, 'Yes, but with the true life, not ours.' Wherefore, besides this, he seemed further to ask whether he had yet completed his work before his passing to the true life; and, if he had completed it, where that was which remained deficient, never by them discoverable. To this it seemed to him that he heard the second time in reply, 'Yes, I completed it.' And hereupon it seemed that he took him by the hand, and led him into that chamber where he had been used to sleep when he lived in this life; and, touching a wainscot of that, he said, 'Here is that which ye have so much sought for.' And, this word being said, it seemed to him that, at the same hour, Dante and sleep departed. Affirming for the which thing that he could not remain without coming to signify to him what he had seen, in order that they might go together to search in the place shown to him, which he had most faithfully marked in his memory, to see whether a true spirit or a false delusion had designated this to him. For the which thing, a great part of the night still remaining, they started, and came together to the place pointed out. And here they found a mat nailed to the wall, which easily moved thence, they saw in the wall a window by neither of them ever before seen or known to be there. And in that they found certain writings all mouldy through the dampness of the wall, and near to rot had they remained there much longer; and these, gently cleaned from the mould, reading them, they found to contain the thirteen cantos so much sought for by them."—It will be observed that this extract is very indefinite in the use of the personal "he." However, but for the statement at starting, that the vision appeared to Jacopo, I should say that the extract implied clearly enough that it appeared to Piero Giardino instead; and perhaps this ambiguity may be reconciled by supposing that Piero dreamed that Dante appeared, not to himself but to Jacopo.—I am, &c. W. M. ROSETTI.
45, Upper Albany Street.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.—W. C. H.—R.—W. A. R.—S. F.—Daukos—H. G. R.—G. M.—H. D.—C. J. R.—J. O. B. C.—H. W. P.—J. G.—H. W. B.—received.

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YEAR.	FIRE DEPARTMENT.			CAPITAL AND RESERVED FUNDS.			LIFE DEPARTMENT.			Age of Company.
	Amount of Premiums.	Amount of Losses.	£. s. d.	Amount of each Year's Dividend.	Capital on which Dividend was paid.	Accumulated Funds.	Amount of Premium.	Amount of Claims.	£. s. d.	
1836	£. 9,970 11 7	£. 1,079 4 8	£. 9,418 18 5	£. 881 0 4	—	—	—	—	—	1st Year.
1837	11,986 17 2	5,173 0 0	3,438 15 0	66,175 0 0	16,328 8 5	1,754 13 7	600 0 0	600 0 0	600 0 0	2nd ..
1838	16,540 13 10	23,582 14 10	3,471 17 6	69,437 10 0	9,312 5 4	2,396 13 0	1,590 0 0	1,590 0 0	1,590 0 0	3rd ..
1839	19,025 9 0	10,509 12 9	3,471 17 6	69,437 10 0	16,623 3 9	2,345 5 3	497 4 0	497 4 0	497 4 0	4th ..
1840	20,697 18 2	1,888 5 6	3,471 17 6	69,437 10 0	38,312 19 6	2,668 18 3	3,900 0 0	3,900 0 0	3,900 0 0	5th ..
1841	20,682 19 11	10,758 17 3	3,380 12 6	67,612 10 0	51,577 6 3	2,633 8 4	4,000 0 0	4,000 0 0	4,000 0 0	6th ..
1842	23,605 11 7	46,520 13 8	3,380 12 6	67,612 10 0	28,153 5 9	3,162 15 9	3,699 19 6	3,699 19 6	3,699 19 6	7th ..
1843	48,346 8 1	44,250 13 10	3,380 12 6	67,612 10 0	38,631 2 4	3,577 11 9	600 0 0	600 0 0	600 0 0	8th ..
1844	56,239 5 5	14,050 7 8	11,930 12 6	79,537 10 0	115,000 11 11	3,817 4 5	200 0 0	200 0 0	200 0 0	9th ..
1845	*50,193 0 0	24,322 12 6	36,730 17 0	101,962 10 0	159,642 12 1	4,390 17 6	1,064 9 6	1,064 9 6	1,064 9 6	10th ..
1846	47,765 1 0	24,866 10 7	45,570 10 0	186,094 10 0	175,473 9 11	16,166 7 5	4,700 0 0	4,700 0 0	4,700 0 0	11th ..
1847	41,409 14 0	19,752 8 10	36,573 1 4	188,047 10 0	181,751 4 10	19,840 11 5	15,388 9 0	15,388 9 0	15,388 9 0	12th ..
1848	135,472 18 1	8,169 9 8	33,160 17 6	188,047 10 0	197,727 7 8	21,198 12 7	9,061 19 4	9,061 19 4	9,061 19 4	13th ..
1849	36,517 15 4	18,637 14 0	24,098 5 4	188,547 10 0	211,798 18 0	23,505 17 5	8,116 0 0	8,116 0 0	8,116 0 0	14th ..
1850	42,926 7 3	7,415 1 1	24,834 15 0	188,547 10 0	227,153 8 2	25,467 16 1	6,078 11 0	6,078 11 0	6,078 11 0	15th ..
1851	54,305 17 9	9,276 6 1	34,992 2 11	196,697 10 0	306,126 12 3	27,157 18 8	21,688 10 0	21,688 10 0	21,688 10 0	16th ..
1852	98,654 14 10	59,091 0 11	35,125 15 3	198,072 10 0	358,153 4 11	50,799 17 11	19,636 2 6	19,636 2 6	19,636 2 6	17th ..
1853	113,618 4 6	42,846 1 0	35,799 4 8	199,320 10 0	421,578 7 9	53,126 2 8	23,160 3 9	23,160 3 9	23,160 3 9	18th ..
1854	146,096 15 9	94,178 19 9	38,458 9 10	168,558 0 0	483,803 2 9	57,113 4 0	19,445 19 3	19,445 19 3	19,445 19 3	19th ..
1855	186,271 16 11	98,559 9 0	41,880 16 0	170,850 0 0	546,067 15 10	63,908 19 5	27,997 15 0	27,997 15 0	27,997 15 0	20th ..
1856	222,279 10 6	108,306 15 10	45,314 18 7	175,008 0 0	646,053 8 6	72,781 15 10	28,855 4 0	28,855 4 0	28,855 4 0	21st ..
1857	289,251 0 4	165,240 7 6	55,895 2 0	188,422 0 0	900,228 3 9	101,928 14 1	46,616 12 11	46,616 12 11	46,616 12 11	22nd ..
1858	276,058 7 0	190,372 12 7	55,961 6 0	188,702 0 0	967,971 15 0	121,411 10 9	63,660 11 9	63,660 11 9	63,660 11 9	23rd ..
1859	295,414 8 10	201,685 7 11	56,153 8 0	188,702 0 0	1,025,072 7 4	127,415 14 9	84,748 12 6	84,748 12 6	84,748 12 6	24th ..
1860	313,725 12 7	225,632 4 7	56,213 8 0	183,902 0 0	1,070,924 2 0	131,721 10 6	76,029 4 10	76,029 4 10	76,029 4 10	25th ..

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Amount proposed for Assurance during the year, contained in 1,384 Proposals, for which Policies were issued, and for which Policies were issued, contained in 1,380 Policies	£307,747 0 0
Annual Premiums on New Policies	705,807 0 0
Claims by Death during the year, exclusive of Bonus Additions	22,505 4 6
Annual Revenue at 1st November, 1860	104,830 14 8
Amount of Premiums	827,703 4 1
From Interest on the Investments	76,868 9 6
Funds	£304,161 13 7

Accumulated Fund, invested in Government Securities, in land, mortgages, &c. £1,905,969 13 6

Average amount of New Assurances annually for the last 14 years, Half a Million sterling, being the largest amount of business transacted in that period by any Insurance Company.

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NOTE.—An Adjourned Meeting will be held early in May, to receive the Report on the Division of Profits for the past Quinquennial period.

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NO.						GUINEAS.
1. EIGHT STOPS (<i>Three and a-half rows of Vibrators</i>), Rosewood Case	45
2. TWENTY-TWO STOPS (<i>Six rows of Vibrators</i>), Rosewood Case	70
3. TWENTY-TWO STOPS (<i>Eight rows of Vibrators</i>), Rosewood Case, $2\frac{1}{4}$ Octaves of Pedals	85

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THE DRAWING-ROOM MODEL

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1. THREE STOPS, Percussion Action, additional Blower, and in Rosewood Case	25
2. EIGHT STOPS, ditto ditto ditto	35
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2. Ditto	Mahogany Case 12				18
3. THREE STOPS ...	Oak, 15 guineas;	Rosewood 16					20
4. FIVE STOPS (<i>Two rows of Vibrators</i>) ...	Oak 22	Rosewood Case 23		8. THREE STOPS	ditto	Rosewood	32
5. EIGHT STOPS ditto	Oak, 25 gs.; Rosewood 26	Oak or Rosewood Case 35		9. EIGHT STOPS	ditto	Oak or Rosewood	40
6. TWELVE STOPS (<i>Four rows of Vibrators</i>)	Oak or Rosewood Case			10. TWELVE STOPS	ditto	Rosewood	45
				11. Ditto	ditto	Oak or Rosewood	55
				12. PATENT MODEL	ditto		

Testimonials from the Professors of Music of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, the Organists of St. Paul's and Westminster Abbey, the Professor of the Harmonium at the Royal Academy of Music, &c. &c., together with full descriptive Lists (Illustrated), may be procured on application to

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